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FAMILY VIOLENCE, NEGATIVE OUTCOMES AND FEMALE DELINQUENCY:  
AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION USING A SAUDI ARABIAN SAMPLE

MAHA ALLUHAIBI

A Thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield  
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for  
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

January 2014

## CERTIFICATION OF APPROVAL

Family Violence, Negative Outcomes and Female Delinquency: An  
Empirical Investigation Using a Saudi Arabian Sample

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to the man to whom I owe all my success in life.  
My beloved father.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

### *In the Name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful*

I thank Allah Almighty for giving me the inspiration, patience, time, and strength to finish this work. With Allah's will and mercy I have been able to achieve all of this.

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### **List of Abbreviations**

FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
HRW	Human Rights Watch
NCVS	National Crime Victimization Survey
OJJDP	Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention
SCI	Social Correctional Institution
SPC	Social Protection Centre
SRD	Self- reported delinquency
UCR	Uniform Crime Reporting
UN	United Nations

## **Abstract**

While there is extensive research on family violence and delinquency in Western literature, this topic is notably rare in Arab literature, including that from Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, although the association between being exposed to family violence and committing delinquent acts has been established in several Western studies, less is known about this association in the Saudi setting. This study sought to explore the extent and nature of these two phenomena in Saudi Arabia. It also aimed to examine the risk and protective factors that might be associated with the likelihood that girls who had experienced or witnessed family violence would then go on to commit delinquent acts.

Given the dearth of literature on the association between family violence and female delinquency in Saudi Arabia, an exploratory study design was considered as the most appropriate method for this research. Data were collected through a self-completed questionnaire. The study sample consisted of 12- to 18-year-old female students (n=422) from intermediate and secondary schools in the Makkah area (western Saudi Arabia).

Both family violence and female delinquency were found to have a relatively high prevalence. Physical abuse was shown to be the most common form of family violence, and brothers were the most common perpetrators of physical and sexual abuse. These results, which contrasted with a number of Western and other Saudi studies, point to sibling abuse as an area that is in need of further investigation. The current study indicated that violent offences, reported by 35 percent of the participants, were the most prevalent type of delinquency. This was unanticipated, given the highly conservative nature of Saudi society.

The current study demonstrated significant associations between risk factors and the likelihood of female delinquency. In addition, the research suggests that if protective factors are absent or weak, then the likelihood that a young female will commit an antisocial behaviour offence is higher. Females exposed to family violence were found to be less likely to commit violent offences.

The findings of the present study suggest that the problems of family violence and female delinquency are relatively common. More research is needed to assess the extent and nature of these problems at the national level. Moreover, the government should implement new policies and practices to address these problems head-on.

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

“Whoever has a daughter and he does not bury her alive, does not insult her, and does not favour his son over her, God will enter him into Paradise”  
(Prophet Mohammad, Peace be upon him).

### 1.1 Introduction

This study was carried out to explore the extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency in the context of Saudi Arabia. In addition, the research aimed to examine the correlation between family violence and both risk and protective factors for delinquent behaviour among young females in Makkah City, Saudi Arabia. Numerous Western studies have demonstrated that exposure to family violence in childhood can lead to a variety of behavioural problems. For example, anti-social behaviour, aggression, and alcohol abuse. (Widom & Maxfield, 1996; Loeber & Farrington, 2012; Zingraff et al., 1993; Widom & Ames, 1994). While in the Saudi context, little is known about family violence and delinquency, and the negative behavioural outcomes which might be associated with exposure to family violence.

In the last half century, Saudi Arabia has experienced rapid changes in economic, social, and cultural aspects as a result of oil revenue. Al-Jibrin (1994) claimed that following the discovery of oil in the 1930s, the country entered a new era of development, which has led to a number of challenging changes. As the country goes through marked socio-economic change that may influence the role of the family unit and the nature of the family structure, the process of social control as well as youth's behaviour, attitudes, and social values may well have changed in ways that predispose some youth to be delinquent. In the past, the extended family had more supervision and influence on young people. However, the extended family structure has changed and become weaker, and children's behaviour has also changed to some extent; many young people may have rejected numerous aspects of traditional values (Al-Asmari, 1993).

Al-Mutlag (2003) reported that after the oil explosion in the 1970s and its associated dramatic social changes, the crime rate increased radically. The juvenile delinquency rates from 1997 to 2001 increased each year, as suggested in the following table (Table 1.1). However, some researchers (Al-Angrai, 2004; Al-Saif, 2004; Al-Asmari, 1993) have

claimed that Saudi society has low rates of crimes compared with other countries and is quite limited in the range of offences.

As a researcher, I argue that the low rates of reported crimes do not indicate that the Saudi society is ideal. The low crime rate may simply suggest that the actual size of the problem is underestimated.

**Table 1.1 Numbers of juveniles who have committed offences from 1997 to 2001 <sup>1</sup>**

<b>Type of crime</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>Total</b>
Theft	2652	3180	3314	3087	3544	15777
Violence	1350	1915	1584	1756	2236	8841
Vandalism	659	966	234	238	306	2403
Homosexuality	770	1231	1340	1183	1167	5691
Drugs and alcohol	425	505	297	492	1497	2111
Traffic offences	290	303	183	430	531	1737
Vagrancy	142	160	112	144	132	690
Other	641	1074	1268	1503	1783	6374
<b>Total</b>	<b>6929</b>	<b>9334</b>	<b>8332</b>	<b>8833</b>	<b>10196</b>	<b>43624</b>

Table 1.1 shows that the rates of juvenile delinquency have increased dramatically in all types of offences except for vandalism, which showed a slight decrease. The main kinds of offences committed by young offenders according to many scholars (Al-Mady, 2000; Al-Sadhan, 1994; Al-Mutlag, 2003) were theft, alcohol and drug abuse, homosexuality<sup>2</sup>, and quarrelling with violence.

It should be mentioned that until 1994, the numbers relating to female offenders were hidden in the official records. Although the published reports since then have shown accurate rates of young female offenders, they do not reveal any information about the females' backgrounds or their types of offences.

According to the Statistical Year Book (2000) published by the Ministry of Social Affairs, 1139 delinquent females were detained in correctional institutions in 2001. The number of young females who were detained was reported, but these data were not accompanied by any details or further explanations.

Below, Table 1.2 shows a dramatic increase in the number of young female offenders who were detained in correctional institutions. However, Al-Askah (2005) argued that the number of delinquent females in the report does not reflect the actual number. After working as a member of the staff years ago in one of these correctional institutions, she is aware of the real statistics.

<sup>1</sup> Cited in Al-Mutlag, F (2003) Juvenile delinquency in Saudi Arabia with special reference to drug users. Unpublished Ph.D thesis, the University of Hull (2003:29).

<sup>2</sup> Homosexuality is an offence and prohibited under Sharia Law.

**Table 1. 2 The official numbers of young females and their institutions <sup>3</sup>**

<b>Year</b>	<b>The number of institutions</b>	<b>The number of young girls</b>
1994-1995	3	608
1995-1996	3	735
1996-1997	3	729
1997-1998	3	761
1998-1999	3	938
1999-2000	3	991
2000-2001	3	1139

The problem of female offenders has been ignored not only by their society, which denies that the problem even exists, but also by the Saudi government (Al-Askah, 2005). Some Saudi researchers magnify the problem, while others minimise its size and effects. This practice might be a consequence of the lack of official government statistics; in some cases, the published reports of different governmental departments contain conflicting information. Discrepancies also exist amongst some of the international reports, such as that published by the United Nations that discusses women's situations in Saudi Arabia and their rights. These studies have led some researchers (Al-Roais, 1991; Al-Shethry, 1993; Al-Sawain, 2007) to believe that even official data may not reflect the situation accurately. This conflict may be due to the fact that the official figures included only the number of offenders who were caught by the authorities or convicted (Al-Youssef, et al, 2005).

According to Al-Sadhan (1996), the official records regarding the number of young female offenders in Saudi Arabia do not indicate the most precise figures. However, he also pointed out that the rate of delinquents is increasing within "reasonable bounds," but did not explain what was meant by reasonable (or for that matter, unreasonable) in regards to the amount of crime and delinquency.

Family violence has also become more visible in Saudi Arabia and recent media reports have begun to reflect the significance of the issue (Al-Youssef, et al., 2005). However, field studies on family violence in Arab societies in general, and in Saudi society in particular, have been meagre for many reasons, including among them the difficulty of obtaining reliable statistical data on the nature and intensity of the issue (Maher, 1987; Al-Angari, 2004; Al-Qarni, 2005).

In Saudi society, hiding the instance of family violence is especially common; this could be due to the conservative nature of Saudi society (Al-Askah, 2005). These families may not

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<sup>3</sup> Cited in Al-Askah , N (2005) A study of juvenile delinquency in females Saudi Arabia . Unpublished Ph.D thesis, the University of Manchester (2005:80).

seek outside recourse because victims fear that doing so could bring shame to the family (Al-Qarni, 2005). Instead, they may prefer to resolve it as an internal family matter. The social values and attitudes commonly held in Saudi Arabia present a major challenge to efforts aimed at tackling family violence (Al-Saud, 2000). In addition, the lack of community awareness of the seriousness of the problem and the failure of society to admit to the problem's existence mean that no clear and effective ways have been identified to deal with family violence (Al-Qarni, 2005).

These factors may explain the reasons behind the low rate of reported cases of family violence in Saudi Arabia and the lack of a published body of literature concerning the problem. This is in spite of the first report of the existence of the problem, which centred on violence against children, and appeared nearly two decades ago, in 1991. The first report was a medical article by (Al-Eissa, 1991) and documented the existence of a child abuse problem in the country.

The consequences of violence can take many different forms. In addition to the psychological and physical effects, victims of childhood physical abuse suffer an increased risk of becoming violent offenders themselves. A study in the United Kingdom found that 72 per cent of juveniles who committed serious offences were victims of abuse (Widom & Maxfield, 2001).

In general, many studies of juvenile delinquency have focused primarily on conduct disorders and aggression in males, while relatively little attention has been paid to females who commit delinquent acts (Hoyt & Scherer, 1998). In Saudi Arabia, only a few studies have even discussed juvenile delinquency in general, and only three recent studies have investigated females' delinquency. Only two of these studies, however, demonstrate that female offenders are especially likely to have experienced childhood maltreatment and that these experiences often lead to increased delinquency during adolescence, though both studies do indicate the need for further research on this relationship (Al-Saif, 2004; Al-Qarni, 2005). Therefore, this study will attempt to investigate the possible link between family violence and female delinquency in Saudi society.

## **1.2 Statement of the study problem**

In Saudi Arabia, the problem of juvenile delinquency is officially a comparatively new phenomenon. However, a general review of the official crime statistics in the country suggests that there has been a significant increase in the rate of juvenile delinquency during the last two decades and also that it might have been influenced by the rapid social

and cultural changes that have affected the family structure, family functions, and family patterns in both traditional and contemporary family settings (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Shethry, 1993).

This research will concentrate on exploring whether there is a correlation between family violence and female delinquency in a Saudi context. The study will address the current lack of knowledge about female offenders in Saudi Arabia to bring to light some of the problems. This study will also attempt to reveal the prevalence of the problem in the hope that the authorities and researchers in Saudi Arabia will accept and confront the issue. In fact, this is the first study in Saudi Arabia to discuss these issues in detail with an emphasis on family violence and its correlation to female delinquency. Hopefully, it will be used as a basis for further research.

Consequently, the study will explore the extent and nature of both problems (family violence and female delinquency) and provide an overview of the prevalence of these problems based on self-reported information, which is particularly important considering that most of the existing Saudi studies have relied on official reports to estimate the size of the problem. Other aspects of these problems will be examined to provide the full picture. These features include determining the most common types of family violence and who is perpetrating them. This study will also investigate the most prevalent types of offences and whether females who are exposed to violence differ in their level of offences than those women who do not report a history of family violence.

Most scholars have suggested that delinquency is not motivated by any single factor but instead is the result of a combination of factors, both social and psychological. Some major risk factors for committing offenses have been identified by researchers, including the influence of family, school, community, and peer groups (Farrington, 1989; Hawkins, 1996). Some Saudi studies (Al-Maliky, 1989; Al-Kharif, 1994; Al-Sadhan, 1996) have investigated these risk factors and focused primarily on socio-economic status, peers, neighbourhoods, and educational levels as predisposing factors for delinquency. However, family violence as a possible risk factor for delinquency has not been fully researched in regards to delinquent females. This study will consider all the risk and protective factors addressed in these previous studies in addition to the presence of family violence.



### **1.3 Research aims**

This thesis addressed the problems of family violence and female delinquency in Makkah City, Saudi Arabia, to determine if a link or correlation exists between these two variables.

The aims of this study can be summarised as follows:

1. To assess the extent and nature of family violence experienced by young women in Saudi Arabia.
2. To identify the common perpetrators of family violence in Saudi Arabia.
3. To assess the extent and nature of female delinquency in Saudi Arabia.
4. To examine the risks and protective factors that might be associated with the likelihood of young women developing behaviour problems.
5. To establish a latent profile of family violence (risk groups) and assess the association between class membership to a particular risk group and violent offences, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, parental mental health problems, father's alcohol abuse, and relationship with mother and father.

### **1.4 The significance of the study**

The extent of the problem of family violence and female offenders in Saudi society is still not accurately known. Despite the growing body of knowledge related to family violence and female crimes in western literature, there is a lack of Arabic and Saudi studies in the same field.

Regarding the existing western criminal literature, many studies have been based upon secondary analyses, which depend on archival records. Some of these data were collected in the early 1970s and therefore may not reflect the contemporary situation of female delinquency. However, other studies have been based on data obtained first-hand from the young offenders themselves in an attempt to explore their own perceptions, experiences, and motivations for engaging in illegal activity (Lake ,1993; Leve & Chamberlain ,2004).

While the link between family violence and juvenile offending has been supported by several western studies, considerably less is known about the risk factors associated with family violence that might produce delinquent outcomes in the Saudi context. Only one Saudi study has investigated the link between child maltreatment and juvenile offending (Al-Sawain, 2007). The majority of recent Saudi studies have focused only on socio-

economic factors as a cause for delinquency, but they have provided concrete evidence of a connection between socio-economic factors and juvenile delinquency (Al-Jibrin, 1994; Al-Roushoud, 2000; Al-Mutlag, 2003). However, these studies are limited as they only highlight the problem from an economic point of view and neglect other possible factors.

Saudi studies on juvenile delinquency are rare. Only seven studies have discussed the problem of young offenders in Saudi society. All of these previous studies focused predominantly on male offenders, and only three of them even considered young Saudi females (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Sawian, 2007; Al-Qarni, 2005). The present study will be one of the few to explore the factors that may influence young Saudi females to become delinquents, and it is the first study to explore Saudi female delinquency with a special emphasis on family violence.

Most of the previous Saudi studies (even those that discussed delinquent males) have focused on the middle region of the Kingdom and the capital city of Riyadh in particular (Al-Shethry, 1993; Al-Sawain, 2007; Al-Mutlag, 2003). Only one study has been carried out in Makkah City; the study conducted by Al-Qarni (2005) investigated a sample of 350 female intermediate school students to analyse the relationship between different types of family violence and later development of deviant behaviour.

However, according to a recent report from the Central Department of Statistics and Information in the Kingdom (2010), the western region that includes Makkah City has the largest population (27% of the entire country) and also the highest number of youths compared with other regions in the Kingdom. These issues make the western region an appropriate environment in which to undertake this study.

In summary, this study may draw attention to the existence of the problem of family violence and female delinquency, which Saudi society and the government sometimes deny. The study may also help to estimate the extent and nature of this problem in Makkah City, which has received less attention from other researchers. This study may help policy makers to recognise the extent of the problem in ways that could help to prevent future patterns of female offending.

## **1.5 Operational definitions**

This section attempts to clarify the main concepts of this study. Discussion is confined to those concepts that are the most important and most frequently used in this study.

## **Family violence**

Until now, the Saudi legal system has not clearly defined “family violence,” and family violence is not criminalised under Saudi law (Al-Sawain, 2007). The present study defines family violence as any incident of threatening behaviour, violence, or abuse (psychological, physical, sexual, financial, or emotional) and neglect specifically against a young female under the age of 18 by any member of the family (mother, father, brother, sister, grandparents, in-laws, and step-family members), including direct exposure by being the subject of violence or by witnessing violence.

## **Female delinquency**

Martin (2005) suggests that all societies define crime differently and there is no fixed concept of what constitutes a criminal act. The concept of juvenile delinquency is a modern development, as is the notion of juvenile justice (Leve & Chamberlain, 2004). Juvenile delinquency can cover a wide range of behaviours, such as truancy, drug abuse, or property damage. All of these acts and many more have been characterised as juvenile delinquency (Bartol & Bartol, 2008; Elmer & Reicher, 1995).

The present study defines female delinquency as any behaviour against the criminal code committed by a female individual who has not reached adulthood (Bartol and Bartol, 1989) which Saudi law defines as 18 years of age. For the purpose of this study the violation of social and religious standards is also considered.

## **Risk factors and Protective factors**

There is a debate among scholars on how to conceptualise risk and protective factors (Wikstrom & Loeber, 2000). In this study, we use the term “risk factors” to refer to the conditions that increase the likelihood of a young person becoming involved in delinquency. For example, children living in families with poor parental monitoring are more likely to be involved in these problems. “Protective” factors are characteristics that are known to decrease the likelihood that a young person will engage in problem behaviours. For example, a prosaic involvement with peers reduces the risk of an adolescent engaging in risky behaviours (Pride Surveys, 2006).

Risk and protective factors identified through research include strong bonding to family, school, community, and peers. Due to the presence of multiple factors and the time limitations of this study, only a few factors will be examined, which are summarised as follows:

- Individual: A female's performance at school and her way of dealing with her feelings and daily life problems.
- Peers: The peer group with whom the young female associates.
- Family: A history of the parents' involvement in crime, drugs, or alcohol misuse; the effectiveness of family management, including communication and discipline; the level of attachment between the parents and their daughter; and the parents' socio-economic level.
- Societal and community: Living in a supportive community, the amount of crime in the neighbourhood.
- School: Having a positive relationship with teachers, attending school regularly.

## **1.6 The structure of the thesis**

This thesis is divided into eight chapters as follows:

Chapter 1 provides a brief introduction to the study, including a statement of the research problem, its aims, and the questions it seeks to answer. Chapter 2 contextualises the study by providing some information about the background of Saudi Arabia in order to help the reader understand the context of the study.

Chapters 3 and 4 present a discussion and review of the relevant Western and Saudi literature on family violence and female delinquency.

Chapter 5 offers a conceptual understanding of family violence, female delinquency, risk and protective factors, and the link between exposure to family violence and later offending. The chapter provides a theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter 6 outlines the methodology, illustrating the methods and procedures used in this research. It gives an overview of the study's design and sampling, and data collection instruments. Further, it concludes with a brief discussion of the difficulties faced during the study process.

Chapter 7 presents the findings of the data collected using a survey questionnaire. Chapter 8 provides a comprehensive discussion of the findings in relation to the existing literature and previous relevant studies. Finally, it reviews the key findings of the study in order to suggest recommendations for future research and for policy makers.

## **1.7 Summary**

The aim of this chapter was to provide an overview of the study. Several points have been discussed, such as the research aims and questions and the significance of the study. The definitions and terminology used in the study were also introduced. Finally, this chapter provided a brief summary of the structure of the thesis.

The following chapter will provide an overview about Saudi Arabia as both a country and a society. It contains general information about Saudi Arabia, such as its location, demographics, culture, and family structure. Information about Makkah City will also be provided, as this was the location of the data collection for this study.

## **CHAPTER 2 STUDY BACKGROUND**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter aims to provide an overview of Saudi Arabian society in order to help the reader contextualise the study. This introduction will start with a brief overview of Saudi Arabia, its location and population, and its economic dimension will also be considered in the discussion. The present study also provides an outline of the city of Makkah because this was the study area for this research. It is also important to briefly discuss its demographic characteristics to put the study in context.

A brief summary will be provided about family life in Saudi society and the economic, social, and cultural changes that have affected family structures, functions, and patterns. This study focused on the young females, who are experiencing or witnessing family violence. It would also be useful to shed some light on women's life in Saudi society, and their rights, responsibilities, and contribution to the development process in the country.

The purpose of exploring family life and the changes that Saudi society has gone through for the last three decades is to show the factors in Saudi society which are associated, perhaps causally, with changes in parental roles, child rearing, education, and employment, as well as marriage and divorce, which may influence female behavioural outcomes. Such a discussion is essential because this social background plays a significant role in a female's social life.

## 2.2 Saudi Arabia: An Overview

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is the largest country in the Arabian Peninsula. The population of the country has diverse ethnic and tribal origins. The Kingdom lies in a strategically important position that contains the largest reserves of oil in the world and it is also the largest country in the region, as well as the birthplace of Islam and guardian of its most sacred shrine (Al-Nashwan , 2005)

### 2.2.1 Location

Saudi Arabia is located in the Middle East between the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. It occupies about 80 percent of the Arabian Peninsula. It borders Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait to the north, Yemen to the south, and Oman, the United Arab Emirates, and Qatar to the east, as shown in the map below (Long, 2005)

**Figure 2.1 Map of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and its administrative regions <sup>4</sup>**



The country is divided into 13 administrative regions “provinces”, and each region has a governor appointed by the king. These regions are ruled by Saudi princes or close relatives of the royal family. Each region is subdivided into a number of districts and each

<sup>4</sup> Map downloaded from (Ezilon.com Regional Maps) <http://www.ezilon.com/maps/asia/saudi-arabia-maps.html>.

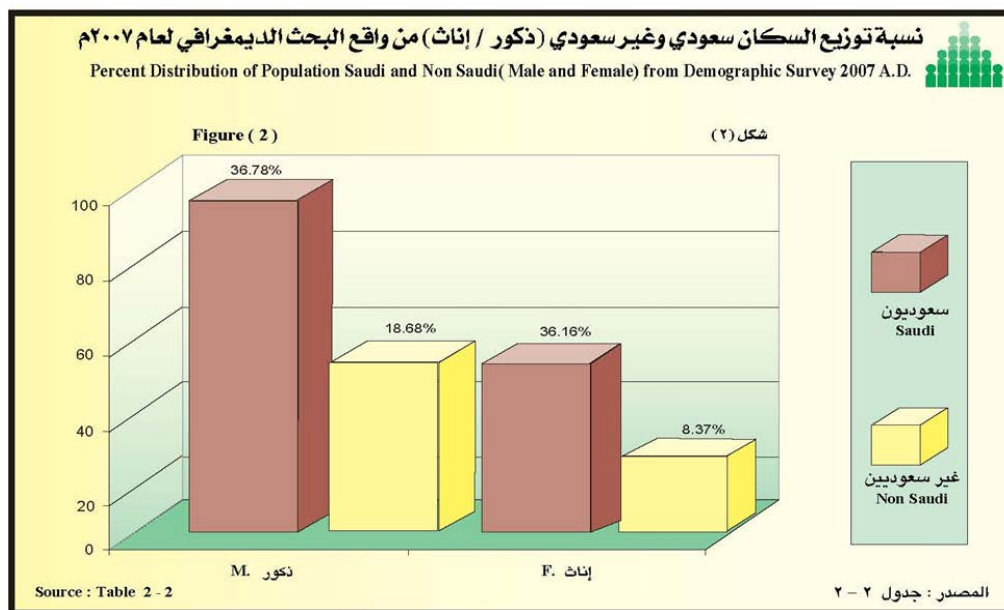
district a number of administrative centers (Central Department of Statistics and information, 2012)

## 2.2.2 Population

This section provides a brief discussion about the demographic features of the Saudi Arabian population, including population density, ethnicity, educational level, economic status, and religious affiliations.

The population of Saudi Arabia was estimated at (23,980,834) according to the census (2007). Saudi nationals account for close to 73 percent of the population, and the remaining residents are comprised primarily of foreign workers. Figure 2.2 below shows the distribution of the population including both Saudi and non-Saudi, and both males and females.

**Figure 2.2 Percentage distributions of population according to Census 2007 <sup>5</sup>.**



From the above graph, it can be seen that the Saudi people comprise up to 73 percent of the total population (36.78 % male and 36.46 % female). Non-Saudis accounted for up to 27 percent which was estimated at 8 million according to a 2006 study by the General Statistics Department. Mostly, these migrant workers originated from Asia. They fill manual service jobs constituting almost half the national workforce. However, this number

<sup>5</sup> Adopted from The Central Department of Statistics & Information: The Statistical Yearbook 2007 (Figure 2-2).



only exhibits the migrant workers who legally reside in Saudi, and number of other unknown workers is undocumented (Central Department of Statistics, 2007)

Saudi Arabia population is characterised by rapid growth. According to the World Health Organisation (2006), Saudi Arabia has an overwhelmingly young population; 22.6 millions are youths, with 46% females and 54% males. Adolescents aged 10-19 were estimated to account for 26.54% in 2006 and it is predicted that the percentage of adolescents will increase to 30.09% in 2010. However, there is no updated data available for Saudi Arabia's population after 2007. The rapid increase in the population may lead to problems in the labour market and social services, which the government might not be able to solve.

The 2007 census survey also indicated that 35.5% of the population was less than 15 years old, 64.7% were between the ages of 15 and 65, and 2.8% were over the age of 65. This means that Saudi Arabia has a large level of manpower, and that requires the government to provide more job opportunities. Such large numbers of foreign workers can limit the opportunities for Saudi people to get jobs, considering that Saudi job seekers refuse low paying jobs and manual jobs due to their social customs.

Cultural traditions and local customs are a major challenge to economic development. These conservative social norms can be considered as a major reason limiting women's participation in the workforce in Saudi society, where there is a stigma associated with females working in a mixed-gender environment. In 2007<sup>6</sup>, women made up less than 15% of the national workforce, with an unemployment rate of 26.9%, nearly four times that of men. The notable feature of females in the labour market is the concentration of their employment in the education sector, where 77.6% of the total working women were employed.

The ratio of working women holding high degrees (i.e., diplomas, bachelor degrees, and higher education) of the total was 81.8%, compared with 29% for males. A total of 93% of all female university graduates specialised in education and humanities, indicating a mismatch between the labour market's needs in a modern economy and the availability for specialisation of female's higher education. This is as a result of the limiting of women's options in higher education, where, for instance, women are not allowed to study engineering courses, and there are no public universities or colleges which provide courses for women. Only a few private Universities, like Effat University and Dar Al-Hekmah University, offer such courses. Therefore, the high admissions fees of these

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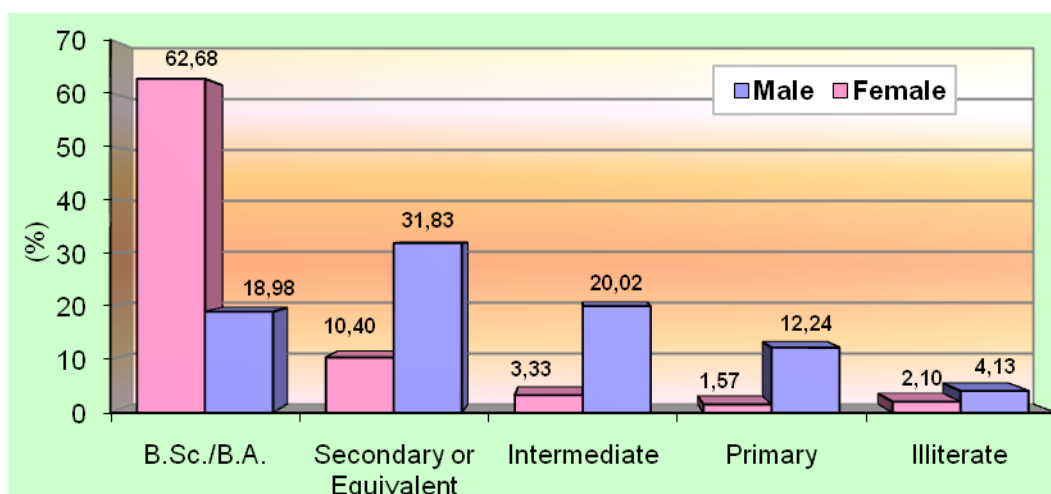
<sup>6</sup> Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA), (August 2008). Forty-fourth Annual Report.

universities and the lack of job opportunities discourages women from undertaking such courses.

The graph below shows the distribution of employed Saudis, both male and female, according to their educational level. The data from the graph below shows that males with only basic education (primary, intermediate, and secondary) have a higher rate of employment compared with females holding the same qualifications. Conversely, females holding high level qualifications, such as a university degree, have a higher rate of employment than the equivalent males.

This may lead us to assume that females with high level qualifications either have more job opportunities or are keener to complete their education to university level than males. However, the lack of official data about the numbers of males and females who hold university degrees prevents us from drawing a definitive conclusion.

**Figure 2.3 Percentage distributions of employed Saudis by Educational level and Gender (2009)**<sup>7</sup>



In term of illiteracy rates in the country, there is no official data from the Saudi government about the country's rate of illiteracy. However, according to a Ministry of Education Web posting<sup>8</sup>, the Kingdom brought down the level of illiteracy in the country from 60 percent in 1972 to 4 percent in 2012. It is clear that there are discrepancies between the international data and the local data provided by the Saudi government.

In the 2007 Saudi population survey, the number of illiterate people was estimated to be 13.69 percent. According to this survey, the term 'illiterate people' refers to adults and

<sup>7</sup> Adopted from (The Millennium development goals report, 2011) Ministry of Economy and Planning. figure 3-3

<sup>8</sup> <http://www.moe.gov.sa/pages/default.aspx>

those over 10 years of age who have had no formal education and cannot read or write. This survey made a distinction between illiterate people and those who are able to read and write estimated as being 14.30 percent of the population, who may have attended primary school only or adult education classes and are therefore able to read and write.

This survey's definition of literacy, and the distinction it made between functional illiteracy and pure illiteracy in the strictest sense<sup>9</sup>, conflicts with the UNESCO and World Bank definitions of illiteracy. This might go some way towards explaining the discrepancies between international and local estimations of the rate of literacy in Saudi society. It should be mentioned that public education, from primary to high school, is a major government priority and is open and free to every citizen and resident of the Kingdom. Higher education, resulting in university or college-level qualifications, is free for Saudi citizens only.

The economic status of the population is unclear due to the lack of official data regarding the standard wage in the country and the level of poverty. Saudi Arabia's economy was very basic before the discovery of oil. Nowadays the government tries, through its 5-year development plans, to transform oil wealth into broader economic prosperity. However, despite high oil prices and rising oil production, the average Saudi's standard of living has fallen, and unemployment, especially among young adults, continues to rise.

Moreover, the perception that oil revenues are not equitably distributed throughout the population continues to create some social discontent. According to the report by the Gulfnews.com, Saudi Arabia spends more than 4 percent of its total GDP annually on donations and humanitarian aid that reaches people in more than 110 countries around the globe. At the same time, nearly 30 percent of its own nationals are under the line of poverty (Gulfnews, 2008).

Despite the vigorous pace of change and economic modernisation that has occurred in Saudi Arabia, poverty and unemployment still exist. In 2006<sup>10</sup>, the U.S government estimated the unemployment rate in Saudi to be 25%, which differs from the estimation made by the Saudi government in 2005, which estimated the unemployment rate to be 6% of the total population. In addition, the rate of poverty has never been mentioned in Saudi official publications. Only the press discusses the problem of poverty in Saudi society, and

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<sup>9</sup> **Functionally illiterate:** A person can read and possibly write simple sentences with a limited vocabulary.  
**Purely illiterate:** A person cannot read or write in any capacity.

<sup>10</sup> Library of Congress — Federal Research Division (September 2006) Country Profile: Saudi Arabia.

the figures that have been provided by the media, reported in daily newspapers or by some Saudi researchers, have been denied by the Saudi government.

The only official available Saudi data on poverty was published by the Ministry of Social Affairs (2011) and was referred to under the 'National Social Development Strategy'. This indicates that the proportion of Saudi households living below the extreme poverty line<sup>11</sup> (food poverty) stood at 0.08 percent in 2004, but decreased to approximately 0.06 percent in 2009, showing a drop of 25 percent (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2011)

It should be mentioned that despite the government's denial of the existence of poverty, they are taking steps to eliminate the problem. The first step was taken by King Abdullah Bin Abdul Aziz Al-Saud, who visited two of the poorest districts in the Saudi capital, Riyadh, in November 2002. A few months later, in February 2003, King Abdullah formed the National Charitable Fund, with a total capital of 10 billion Saudi Riyals to eradicate poverty in the country. The fund formed part of the multi-aspect policies laid out by the Saudi Monarch to address the problem. Since then, there have been no official reports on the achievement of these policies in tackling poverty in the Kingdom.

### **2.2.3 Overview of Makkah city (the study area) <sup>12</sup>**

The present study provides a brief overview of Makkah and its socio-demographic characteristics, as this city is the study area for this research. Information regarding Makkah Province and the number of districts and centres that fall under its umbrella is also provided. Makkah Province, located in the western region of Saudi Arabia, is the most populous province of the country with nearly 26% of its total population. Makkah is the capital of Saudi Arabia and Jeddah is its main port and the largest city in the province. The province is divided into 12 governorates which each include many cities and villages.

According to the 2007 Census, Makkah has the largest population and the highest percentage of foreigners in Saudi Arabia at 36% (2,211,406 people). These expatriates come from different ethnic and linguistic groups. Makkah is seen by Muslims as the holiest city on Earth and has many holy sites as it is the city where the Prophet Mohammad (Peace be upon him) was born. Indeed, it is the most sacred location in the Islamic world. It is the site of the Grand Mosque and, each year, millions of Muslims travel to Makkah

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<sup>11</sup> Extreme poverty line has been estimated at about \$2 a day per person.

<sup>12</sup> 'Mecca' is the familiar form of the English transliteration for the Arabic name of the city. The strictly correct English transliteration is 'Makkah'.

from all over the world to perform their pilgrimage (Hajj) (Esposito, 2011). It should be mentioned that the entire population of the city is Muslim regardless of individuals' ethnic groups, because entrance to Makkah is restricted to Muslims only.

The demographic features of the population are different to those of other cities in Saudi Arabia. In terms of population distribution, the population density is the highest in the old city (central area) in the vicinity of the holy mosque, while in other cities the distribution of the population is mostly balanced. The proportion of males to females (aged 30 years and over) is higher due to the fact that Makkah has a high population of foreign workers and these are mostly men. Makkah is therefore much more ethnically diverse than most Saudi cities.

According to the 2007 Census, the population can be divided according to their age groups as follows: people of working age (15–64 years old) make up 61% of the total population, children aged less than 15 years account for 36% of the population, and elderly people aged 65 years and over constitute approximately 3% of the population. In terms of marital status, married people (aged 18 years and over) make up 61% of Makkah's population compared with 33% who are not married. The survey results also indicate that the divorce rate is quite low, as it was found to be 2% only. 4 % of the total population were widowed.

In terms of the educational status of the population, according to the High Commission of Development Makkah<sup>13</sup> in 2009, the rate of illiteracy in female citizens rose to about 20.6 percent, and 16.9 percent in male citizens. In those with only residential status, the rate of illiteracy was much higher, standing at 25.5 percent for females and 13.3 percent for males. There was also an increase in the percentage of the population with a university education. Up to 14.4 percent of the total male population held University degrees, compared with 15.9 percent of females.

Primary-level education is compulsory for both citizens and residents. The percentage of the population with primary education stands at about 17.6 percent for males and 13.4 percent for females. The percentage rises among citizens, reaching 19 percent of males and 14.1 percent of females, while this figure is less between residents; approximately 14.3 percent for males and 11.3 percent for females.

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<sup>13</sup> <http://develop.makkahgis.info/>

The geography of Makkah also varies from year to year due to population distribution changes that occur as a result of the expansion of the Grand Mosque in the centre of the city, where hundreds of houses have now been replaced by wide avenues and city squares. Despite the improvements made around the location of the holy mosque, slums still exist in Saudi Arabia in Makkah city and the nearby villages in particular. This conflicts with the idealised image of Saudi Arabia as a wealthy society which has been portrayed in the media and press, both locally and internationally.

According to a recent report issued by the High Commission of Development Makkah<sup>14</sup> (2010), the slums are defined as “unauthorized make-shift residential areas that don’t have proper municipal services”. This report estimates the population density in the slums to be at 215 people per hectare compared to the population density in Makkah itself, estimated at 101 people per hectare, illustrating vast differences in population distribution across the city. Generally speaking, most of the people in the slum area are illegal immigrants. The report concludes that the construction boom in the holy city is out of control because of non-compliance with statutory laws and the absence of planning, which has in turn led to an increase in illegal structures and the spread of slums.

The media have also discussed the slum problem. A recent report (2012) by “*Middle East online*” highlighted the danger of slums in Makkah. According to this report, the slums pose security, health, and social risks due to the absence of proper roads and basic services such as healthcare and clean water. This article estimated the population of the slums to be 1 million, distributed across 70 slums, which make up 25 percent of the city’s urban areas.

### **2.3 Family life in Saudi Arabia**

In Saudi society, family is the most important agency of social control. Until recently, the extended family was the most dominant family form in Saudi Arabia, a characteristic prevalent in all Arab societies (Al-Gamdi, 1991). The changes in Saudi family-structure functions are associated with the processes of urbanisation, industrialisation, and modernisation, which correlate with the changes to the oil economy. Following the start of the country’s oil development in 1970, most young people moved to the big cities to either enrol in schools or search for employment. The extended family became weaker and the

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<sup>14</sup> <http://develop.makkahgis.info/>

nuclear family<sup>15</sup> became the most dominant structure in the country, at least in the new, developing cities.

The structure of Saudi families has therefore been influenced by economic and social changes. Some scholars, such as Long (2000), argue that the traditional extended family structure still forms the basic family configuration in Saudi society. Others, such as Al-Sharideh (1999) and Al-Gamdi (1990), assert that family structure has been negatively influenced by economic and social changes and that the nuclear family, cut off from traditional support systems, is the new foundation of the Saudi social structure.

Family support takes many forms and is largely associated with whether the family exists in the nuclear or extended format. According to the 2007 demographic survey, between 2004 and 2007, the ratio of nuclear families to the total population rose from 58.9% to 64.9%, while the share of extended families declined from 41.1% to 35.1%. Notably, until 2007, the average size of a nuclear family and extended family was 5.7 and 6.2 individuals, respectively, and families were overwhelmingly headed by males, with the proportion of households headed by women not exceeding 4.4% of the total number (Central Department of Statistics, 2007)

The results also showed that, among Saudi women (15 years and over), 32.1% were unmarried, 60.2% married, 5.4% widowed, and 2.3% were divorced, with the corresponding ratios for males being 40.1%, 58.7%, 0.4%, and 0.8%, respectively. Notably, the proportions of divorced men and women were small but had increased slightly since 2004; 1.6% for females and 0.6% for males. In addition, the data of marital status by age group shows that, the percentage of Saudi women in the 15–19 age group who had never married was high (96%), which confirms a general trend towards later marriage (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010).

As an aside, there is a difference between a Saudi nuclear family and a Western one. The Saudi nuclear family is currently in a transitional phase and therefore carries many features of both the Western and traditional, extended family model. It is therefore still characterised by extended relations, a condition not present in the Western nuclear family.

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<sup>15</sup> The nuclear family or elementary family is a term used to define a family group consisting of a pair of adults and their children. This is in contrast to a single-parent family, to the large extended family, and to a family with more than two parents.

While the increasing number of nuclear families points to a tendency towards economic and social independence, it is important to emphasise that existing family links are still strong and continue to provide moral and, whenever possible, economic support to family members, even when they live independently. The results of a survey conducted by the Ministry of Social Affairs (2010) points to frequent family visits, with 37% of Saudi people paying one to two visits per week to the family of the husband and 23% to the family of the wife. These statistics emphasise the depth of family ties and their influence in enhancing the status of the family in the Saudi social structure.

There have been changes to most aspects of Saudi life due to the development of oil and the associated socio-economic transformation. Some scholars, such as Al-Saif (1997), have argued that although there are some important changes in Saudi society, many facets of social life remain the same. He suggests that the father's authority and devotion to family and tribe still exists. However, Al-Mutlag (2003) suggests that changes are observable for many Saudis in their social and cultural life, reflecting the mobility and migration of the individual. For example, the collective spirit of the family is being replaced by more individualistic tendencies, an independent spirit, and a reduction in the authority and power of the father's decisions.

The Saudi family is still to some degree traditional despite the radical changes to most aspects of social life. The Saudi family is still a patriarchal social unit where a clear-cut division of labour exists between males and females. This underpins the male domination in Saudi Arabian society as a whole. As Adler (1983, p.82) pointed out, 'the activities of women are still very restricted, they are not allowed to work in jobs or frequent areas where they could come into contact with men, to drive automobiles, or to travel independently'.

Saudi society experienced social change so rapidly that some people could not adapt in functional ways. The break between the traditional and modern the society occurred very quickly and the emergence of new norms and types of social control have generally not kept pace. This rapid change may have had an impact on the family-youth relationship, and their communication, social attitudes, religious values, and morality (Al-Askah, 2005).

There are a variety of competing values and many individuals may be unsure of what constitutes appropriate moral conduct. Before these societal changes, the older generations would grasp at traditions while the younger generations would gradually negotiate the emergence of new values. Younger generations typically stimulate change



in the majority of cultures and Saudi youth are no different from the world's youth in this regard. What is unique about Saudi society is the rapidity of the social change, the disjunctions in family life it has caused, the negative pressures, the deterioration in the quality of family life, and the erosion of traditional values without them being replaced by new moral values that are clearly defined, accepted, or enforced.

The mobility and migration of young families, educational opportunities, urbanisation, and westernisation have, it is argued, modified the traditional role of the extended family. The economic, social, cultural, spiritual, and religious roles of the Saudi traditional extended family have been transferred to other economic, social, and cultural systems. Consequently, as the role of the extended family has declined, the support, assistance, and maintenance of its individuals has also declined. For some families, these functions may have even completely disappeared. In the case of the latter, members of the nuclear family will have lost the support and assistance of their extended family and will have to face the modern, urban problems alone.

Al-Mutlag (2003) explained that, as the younger generations adjust to urban values and adopt some of the foreign workers' value systems, this could prove to be unbearable for parents, both morally and psychologically. As a result, it could push some juveniles to be anti-social and become involved in delinquent acts such as drug abuse or alcohol misuse. The contrast between traditional and new values is called cultural conflict, as explained by Al-Mutlag (2003). According to Al-Shethery (1993, p.98), 'cultural conflict has created some problems, which threaten[s] the Saudi family and give[s] warning of social disorganisation'. Akkooz (1974, p.30) has a similar point of view, claiming 'the government social policy could be blamed for not anticipating the outcome of large oil revenues and the influx of foreign workers on the delicate cultural and social values of the country'.

In conclusion, family life in Saudi Arabia is similar to that of other countries in the Gulf region in terms of culture, religion, and way of life. Together with Saudi Arabia, these other countries have been undergoing radical changes since the end of the 1970s. The Gulf family unit is passing through a fast transition that affects its functions, role, authority, and structure. Saudi families have been challenged by some negative aspects of the development, such as the level of unemployment of its youth and poverty. Rapid economic changes have also created some social and cultural values that conflict with traditional ideals.

## 2.4 The Lives of Females in Saudi

Saudi women are first-class citizens, with rights, duties and responsibilities. When we talk about the comprehensive development which our country is experiencing across all aspects, we cannot ignore the role of Saudi women and their participation and responsibility in this development <sup>16</sup>

The above quotation from King Abdullah bin Abdul-Aziz Al-Saud demonstrates that the social change that has occurred in the country has not only affected family structures but it has also changed the role of women. In this section I shed light on the current situation for women in general and young females in particular. The focus is on the availability of education for young females, their freedom of movement, marriage, and other relevant social issues. It should be mentioned that there is a lack of official and reliable literature concerning issues related to women and young females in Saudi Arabia. The only available sources for information are the international reports produced by Human Rights Watch, for example, and the news published by the local or international press. Therefore, some of the information provided in this section is not referenced. In addition, most of the available references were either drafted to reflect a positive image of Saudi society or written by Western researchers who are not familiar with the culture and social norms of Saudi society.

Young females in urban cities have had a greater chance of receiving an education since the formal introduction of female education in 1960. Since then, traditional families have had to decide whether to permit their daughters to obtain an education or to ignore the government's resolution and keep girls confined at home. Initially, some conservatives kept their daughters at home and would not allow them to enter school. However, they began to allow their daughters to attend school when they observed that other families' incomes had increased because of their daughters' salaries. There are two additional noteworthy characteristics of education in Saudi Arabia. First, the Saudi government maintains gender segregation for all types and levels of education and, second, all state education is free of charge.

Since female education in Saudi Arabia has officially begun, educational levels have increased rapidly. The number of female's institutions grew from 15 in the 1960s to 155 in the 1970s. Furthermore, in 1986, statistics showed that the total number of girls in elementary schools in 1970 was 246,559 (Al Mohsen, 2000). That number subsequently increased to 649,509 according to the 1989 UNESCO statistics. In secondary schools,

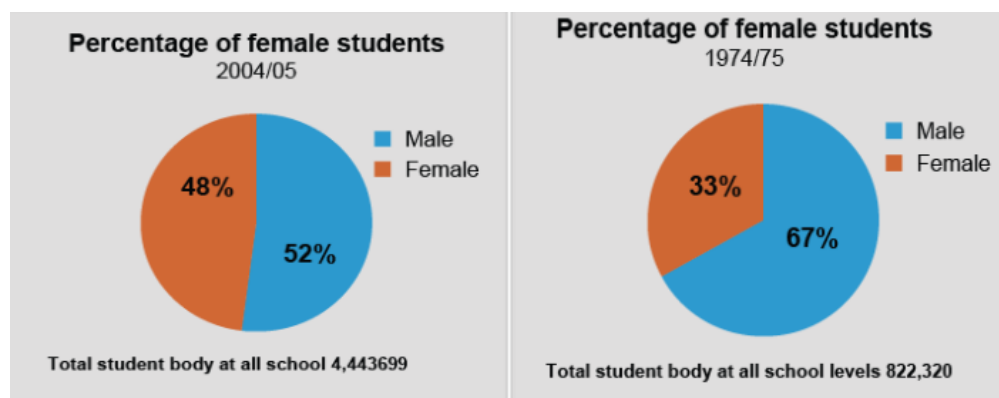
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<sup>16</sup> Quoted by Al-Jazeera Newspaper on 6 December 1999

185,902 girls graduated in 1982 and the number had increased to 255,766 in 1986. The first girls' college was established in 1970 in Riyadh and admitted those with secondary-level schooling. Approximately 10 similar colleges with the same requirements had opened by the 1980s. Subjects included the arts, education, general science and sciences such as biology, mathematics, religion, Arabic, geography, history, English, psychology, and home economics. Library sciences were offered exclusively at Riyadh's college (Al Malik, 1987).

Figure 2.4 shows that in 1974–75, there were 1024 female schools, which represented 26% of the total number of schools at all levels. However after 30 years, the number of female schools has increased significantly to 24,464, representing 48% of the total number of schools at all levels.

**Figure 2.4 Percentage of Female Students at All School Levels (1974–75 and 2004–05).<sup>17</sup>**



Al-Munajjed (2009) criticised the Saudi public education system as she believed that the system treats males and females differently due to the gender-based expectations of society. She identified several examples to support her argument. For example, the curricula for female education at all school levels has not been seriously revised for more than 20 years and textbooks have not been updated. Furthermore, physical education was non-existent for girls, even at higher education levels, as sport is considered to be incompatible with local traditions and customs. I should clarify that sport for females is not forbidden under Sharia Law – it is merely a conservative cultural view held by some people in society. The issue has been debated for a long time; however, the situation remains the same and the Ministry of Education has not provided any clarification about the lack of provision for sport in girls' schools.

<sup>17</sup> Adopted from Al-Munajjed , M (2009) Women's education in Saudi Arabia the way forward. Booz & Company

Education has played a major role in helping females to enhance and promote their status, with concomitant effects on family structure. By obtaining a degree or higher education, young females persist in demanding more freedom. Families usually grant girls a small level of freedom and, for girls, this is an accomplishment. For some Saudi women, education comes first, so marriage in their opinions often comes last, although this does not mean that girls put marriage permanently out of their minds. Al-Saif (1997) observed that most Saudi girls approve of marriage, but not before finishing their higher education first. Furthermore, the choice of husband was often negotiated by girls' parents but now educated girls are given more of a chance to accept or reject a prospective partner.

Due to female education, marriage patterns have also changed. The marriage age has risen among young people in Saudi Arabia. Many women are waiting longer before marrying and, although most marriages are still arranged, the majority of young people are now personally acquainted with their intended spouses. Today, young couples can meet surreptitiously, often with the help of siblings, communicate via mobile phones and, if mutually agreeable, ask their mothers to arrange the marriage (Long, 2000). With respect to the change in marriageable age in Saudi Arabia, Al-Sharideh (1999), Al-Gamdi (1990), Al-Saif (1997), and Hamdan (1990) have all reported that educated men and women delay marriage until they finish university level and have established good careers.

Although there are no recent and reliable statistics regarding the age of marriage or the rate of divorce, some researchers and journalists argue that early marriage still exists and they consider it to be a serious problem. I should add that the setting of a minimum age for marriage qualifies as a significant debate in Saudi society, especially since there is no legal minimum age for marriage for either males or females – this is despite the efforts of the Saudi Human Rights Commission (SHRC), which launched a campaign to set a minimum age for marriage in the country with the target of 17 years for females and 18 years for males.

Nowadays, educated females in Saudi Arabia can obtain higher degrees and seek better employment than previously so. Fathers and husbands who used to object to female education are now helping their daughters or wives to apply for jobs. Young men often prefer a working wife when planning for marriage in order to share the cost of living. Three or four decades ago, women rarely worked outside of their homes. Society used to look down on women who worked outside of their homes and considered these women to be overtly liberal.

The Saudi government has introduced some job opportunities for educated women so that those who have obtained a degree have the potential to be employed. Women's income benefits their father or husband financially and in this way has raised women's social status in the family. Al-Sharideh (1999, p.114) explained how society has regarded female employment: 'Some traditional views regarding women holding a job seem to be changing. For example, in the past, people may have looked down on men whose wives [were] working in public. Nowadays, however, instead of looking down on such men, they are considered to be lucky'.

Since 1992, women's participation in the Saudi national labour force has nearly tripled, from 5.4% to 14.4%. However, this represents one of the lowest levels of national female participation in the labour force in the region: the national female participation rate in the UAE is 59%, 42.49% in Kuwait, 36.4% in Qatar, 34.3% in Bahrain, and 46.1% in Malaysia. In addition, the 26.9% unemployment rate of Saudi females in the labour force in 2008 was nearly four times higher than that of Saudi males (The World Bank, 2012)

Females in Saudi Arabia are disproportionately affected by poverty compared to men because they have limited options for employment, restricted access to justice and transportation, and opportunities for women to act as independent entrepreneurs are weak. Females are mostly under the legal control of their closest male relative and often lack choices with regards to fundamental life decisions such as childbearing or whether or not to work outside of the home. Together, these factors greatly affect the economic wellbeing of women and prevent those who are facing economic hardship from taking care of themselves.

There are other social issues affecting women's lives in Saudi Arabia that are also worth mentioning. For example, females' lack of mobility remains a salient point of contention in the Kingdom as they are still not allowed to drive cars. In addition, they are not allowed to travel abroad or even within the country's borders without written permission from their closest male relative (or male guardian). Indeed, without this permission, women are subject to the arbitrary approval or disapproval of airport personnel. In terms of civil rights, women were not permitted to vote in Saudi Arabia's first elections for municipal councils, yet a number of women put their names forward as candidates. Expectations are high for women's inclusion in future elections. While a 2007 reform in Saudi citizenship laws allows non-national women who have been divorced by Saudi husbands to apply for Saudi citizenship, female Saudi nationals married to non-Saudi husbands remain unable to pass their citizenship on to their children or spouses. However, their sons, but not their daughters, may apply for citizenship at the age of 18.

## 2.5 The Judicial System in Saudi Arabia

This section will concentrate on the points which are relevant to the aims of this study. The discussion will cover the basics of Saudi law, the age of criminal responsibility in Saudi Arabia, and the current juvenile justice system. It will also cover the position of Saudi law in relation to domestic violence.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is a monarchy with a constitution based on Sharia law. The King performs the role of Prime Minister, as he appoints and leads the Council of Ministers. This council is made up of executive and administrative bodies. The laws underpinning the formation of this government were introduced in March 1992.

There are two primary sources of Sharia law. The first is the Quran, which is the holy book of Islam. The Quran sets out a number of principles and rules regarding faith and socio-political life. It is believed by Muslims to be definitive and unalterable. The second source is *Sunnah*, which refers to the living example of the Prophet Mohammed (Peace be upon him). These are the main sources of legislation for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Al-Marzouqi, 2005).

There are two additional sources of legislation used in the Kingdom. These are called *Ijma* and *Qiyas*. These additional sources provide solutions to legal issues that cannot be solved through the Quran or the Sunnah. *Ijma* refers to the consensus of traditional Islamic scholars. It is a flexible tool for solving social problems and crimes that arise due to new developments and changes.

*Qiyas* in Arabic means 'measuring' or 'comparing', and is comparable with the notion of case law in common law systems. *Qiyas* is useful in resolving specific issues that are not mentioned in the Quran or the Sunnah, and on which there is no consensus by Islamic scholars. In order to create a new case law, a judge has to proceed logically and reasonably, taking a variety of ideas into consideration before making a decision. A judge may refer to previous cases that have been ruled on by higher-ranking judges. Perhaps local norms or customs could help him to find a solution to the case, or he might consider the impact of his decision both to society and the defendant (Al-Qaradawi, 2003).

Some researchers (Wardaw, 2005; Miethe and Lu, 2005) have suggested that the country should codify the largely unwritten Sharia regulations governing the Kingdom's criminal, civil, and family courts, in order to bring some clarity and uniformity to judicial ruling. In Islamic history, there have been two attempts to codify Islamic laws. One was the Ottoman Empire's attempt to codify the civil law in 1870, and the other was by Egyptian

scholars. However, neither of these succeeded, due to the strong objection of conservative jurists or scholars, amongst other issues (Sadig, 1999).

This was also the case in Saudi Arabia when lawyers and rights activists asked for reform of the legal systems. In 2007, King Abdullah consented to the codification of Sharia regulations governing the Kingdom's criminal, civil, and family courts in order to bring more clarity and uniformity to judicial rulings. The codification project is part of a major overhaul of the country's legal system initiated three years ago by King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz. ( Al-Sawain,2007)

Crimes under Sharia Law are defined as “acts that injure either the rights of God or the rights of worshippers, or both”. The Ministry of Justice's definition of crime, accepted by modern writers on Islamic jurisprudence and adopted by the Saudi legal system, defines crimes as “acts prohibited by the Sharia and discouraged by God with Hudud or Tazir punishment” (Ministry of Justice, 2000) According to this definition, crimes can be placed into three categories, based on the nature of the right that has been violated (Haleem et al., 2005):

- i. *Hudud* refers to crimes against God. These types of crimes are the most serious and punishable. Their punishments are fixed, and cited in the Holy Quran. These crimes include adultery, defamation or false accusation of adultery, use of intoxicants, theft, highway robbery, and apostasy, i.e. leaving Islam for another religion.
- ii. *Kisas* refers to crimes against society; these types of crimes also have fixed punishments. This type of crime is equivalent to misdemeanour. These crimes include intentional and unintentional acts such as murder, involuntary killing, and intentionally or unintentionally causing physical harm.
- iii. *Tazir* crimes are all crimes not included in the lists of crimes for which there are fixed punishments. These crimes are not mentioned in Islamic criminal law. It is left to the legal authority to create, define, and fix punishments. The punishments for this type of crime vary according to the circumstances, and they may change from time to time and from place to place. Examples of Tazir crimes are forging currency, making intoxicants, drug smuggling, and drug abuse.

However, the Saudi legal system has no clear definition of delinquency or youth offending. According to Al-Sadhan (1996), delinquency can be defined as committing any act that is prohibited by Islamic law, or abandoning, neglecting, or disregarding any act that is required by Islamic law without legal Islamic justification. However, this definition is quite broad. It does not include a clarification of those acts prohibited by Islamic law. This is a

potential weakness in the legal system, where the implementation of Sharia law, as discussed above, can be considered incomplete.

In Saudi Arabia, under Islamic law, those who are under 15 years of age, both male and female, are not considered mature. Offenders under 15 years of age are treated with leniency, their fingerprints are not taken, and the Criminal Identification Bureau will not record their antecedent acts. However, girls who are over 18 years old are considered adults, and if they are convicted of any crime, they will be subject to the appropriate Islamic penalty (Al-Maliky, 1989; Al-Roais, 1991).

Islamic law absolves youths from the responsibility for any offences until they become adults. It also absolves the mentally ill unless they become healthy. Muslim thinkers have divided the life cycle into three stages (Suliman, 1986):

1. From birth to age seven, the child has no criminal responsibility but can have civil responsibility, which means parents have to compensate those who have been affected by the actions of their child. Islamic law assumes that a child of this age has no realization of what constitutes a crime.
2. From 8-14 years old, the juvenile is considered partially responsible for any criminal act, partially because they do not fully realize the dimensions of criminal acts. A juvenile of this age who commits a criminal act has to be treated, rehabilitated, and cured, not punished.
3. At fifteen years of age (or according to some Islamic thinkers eighteen years old), the juvenile reaches adulthood. The Saudi legal system adopts the view that eighteen is the start of adulthood. At this age, one who commits a crime should be treated as an adult and punished according to the law.

Despite this, a report by Human Rights Watch (2008) reported that 12 juveniles under the age of 18 years in Saudi Arabia were executed in 2007. In fact, this could be a result of the absence of a juvenile court, leading to the trials of juveniles taking place in an adult court. In addition, these case rulings may be based on a judge's assessment of the child's physical development, which considers that a child attains majority when any one of four conditions is met: surpassing 15 years of age, occurrence of wet dreams for males, appearance of pubic hair, or upon menstruation for females (Council of Senior Scholars Decree, 2009). More recently, the Saudi government raised the minimum age for delinquents from 7 to 12 years in January 2006 (Human Rights Watch, 2008).



On the other hand, in regards to family circumstance it should be noted that family violence is not criminalised under the Saudi law, although it is not considered acceptable under Sharia Law. There is no doubt that the weak legal framework contributes both directly and indirectly to family violence against children (United Nations, 2006). In addition, there are different ways to respond to a social problem, one of which is to create a national policy that clearly delineates how institutions and individuals should respond (Munro, 2002). According to Human Rights Watch (2008) Saudi Arabia adopted a new judiciary law in October 2007 to set up specialized courts, such as family courts. However, there is still no penal code that is consistently adhered to.

According to a recent report by the Saudi Arabia Trends Journal (2008), the Kingdom is drafting a new law to protect women and children from abuse. The Saudi Minister for Social Affairs, Abdul Mohsen Al-Akass, reported that the new law is aimed at protecting the rights of women, be they wives, sisters, or domestic maids, and of children, both female and male. He also stated that, according to the new law, fines, punishments, or both may be imposed upon those found guilty of subjecting women and children to physical or mental abuse. It should be added that this statement was issued through the Saudi Arabia Trends Journal in February 2008, but until this moment nothing had been announced for the implementation of the law and no announcement on the details of this law and its mechanisms of implementation in society had been released. This circumstance caused some public confusion at the announcement of some laws without implementation.

In conclusion, it should be added that Islam is known as the religion of mercy, and has emphasised the importance of compassion within the family (Al-Qaradawi, 2003). In addition, the Prophet Mohammed (Pbuh) has asserted the importance of mercy in Muslim life: "He who does not show mercy, no mercy will be shown to him [by Allah]" This explicit warning against violence stresses the importance of compassion (Al-Jibaly, 2002).

## **2.6 Summary**

In the last half century Saudi Arabian society has experienced tremendous changes as a result of the wealth from new oil. This has led to an influx of foreign workers, and changes in some fundamental values. Job and education opportunities have led to young men moving away from traditional extended families in rural areas for jobs in the city. However, often their new homes are crowded, and the support and authority of the traditional extended family has been undermined.

Women's status has also changed with new educational and job opportunities, and women are now increasingly working outside of the home in ways which have implications for the patterns of marriage and family formation.

The long-term effects of these changes are unknown, but it is possible that in a time of rapid change, the traditional values are challenged or undermined. Moreover, a state of relative normality (described by sociologists as *anomie*) may emerge, with implications for personal adjustment as well as for deviant and criminal behaviour of various kinds.

## **CHAPTER 3 FAMILY VIOLENCE**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This study is not seeking to explore the cause of family violence; its aim is to determine the extent and the nature of the problem. To these ends, the literature review presented in this chapter focuses on the family violence that is perpetrated by parents against each other or against their children, as well as between child siblings.

The first part of the review concentrates on the issues that scholars face when attempting to define family violence. The discussion includes a review of the relevant literature in order to define the concept of family violence in the international and Saudi contexts. The review also outlines key research findings on the extent and nature of family violence, both internationally and in Saudi Arabia. The final part of the review sheds light on the efforts which have been made by the Saudi government to eliminate the problem of family violence.

### **3.2 Issues in defining family violence**

It is often true that the most simple and “obvious” things are the hardest to pin down. This appears to be the case when trying to define the concept of family violence. The term ‘family violence’ is socially constructed and its meaning varies according to the context it is found in and over time (Anderson, 1997). Defining family violence is not a simple task, as Gelles and Straus (1988) conclude that after twenty years of discussion, debate, and action, there has not been, and will never be, an accepted or acceptable definition of violence within the family. This is because violence is not a scientific or clinical term; rather, it is a political concept. Nevertheless, these authors succinctly define it as “any act that is considered deviant or harmful by a group large enough or with sufficient political power to enforce the definition” (Gelles and Strauss, 1988: 57 in Jaffe et al., 1997: 353).

The term family violence has a wide variety of meanings. In its most basic form, it generally refers to violent or abusive behaviours in the home that are directed towards one or more persons (Kashani & Allan, 1998). However, families over the last 40 years have often comprised a variety of people who are not biologically related; such as step-relatives. The concept of ‘family’ has been broadened to include non-marital cohabiting relationships and same-sex intimate relationships (Hines & Malley-Morrison, 2005).

In this section, the difficulties of defining family violence will be discussed. The most common issues with definition that have been pointed out by scholars concern overlaps and inconsistencies, and the types of acts that fall under the umbrella of family violence.

These are some of the most common definitional issues identified in the literature:

1. Overlap of and lack of consensus about terms such as violence, abuse, and maltreatment.

Different terms have been used to describe children who have been exposed to family violence. Early research often described children as being “witnesses” or “observers” of such violence (Edleson, 1999; Kolbo et al., 1996). In the last decade, these terms were replaced by “exposure,” which is more inclusive and does not make assumptions about the specific nature of the children’s experiences with the violence. Exposure to family violence can include watching or hearing the violent events, direct involvement (for example, trying to intervene or calling the police), or experiencing the aftermath (for example, seeing bruises or observing maternal depression) (Carlson, 2000; Kitzmann et al., 2003).

However, few empirical studies have articulated what is meant by childhood “exposure” and many do not report information about the type or extent of violence to which the child is exposed. Thus, to date, no accepted definition of childhood exposure to violence has emerged (Mohr et al., 2000). Despite such a lack of consensus, most researchers agree that exposure to family violence occurs when children see, hear, are directly involved in (i.e., attempt to intervene), or experience the aftermath of physical or sexual assaults that occur between their caregivers (Edleson, 1999; Jouriles et al., 2001; Wolak & Finkelhor, 1998). In addition, while much of the research of childhood exposure to family violence has focused on male-perpetrated violence (Wolak & Finkelhor, 1998), researchers must recognise that children may also be exposed to violence that their mothers perpetrate or to bidirectional acts of violence between caregivers.

Furthermore, there is an on-going debate over the use of the terms “victim” and “survivor,” with some suggesting that the term “victim” should be avoided because it implies passivity, weakness, and inherent vulnerability and fails to recognise the reality of women’s resilience and agency (United Nations, 2006; Hanmer & Itzin, 2000). The term “survivor” is problematic because it denies the sense of victimisation experienced by women who are the targets of violent crime. The term “victim” is generally used in the criminal justice context and the term “survivor” in the context of advocacy.

Holden (2003) has made an attempt to create a taxonomy of exposure to family violence, and has listed different types of exposure into 10 categories which are summarised in Table 3.1. These types range from being involved in the violent incident, to observing the initial effects, to ostensibly being unaware of it.

**Table 3 .1 Taxonomy of children’s exposure to family violence (FV).**

<b>Type of exposure</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Examples</b>
Exposed prenatally	Real or imagined effects of FV on the developing fetus.	Fetus assaulted in utero; pregnant mother lived in terror; mothers perceived that the FV during pregnancy had affected their fetus.
Intervenes	The child verbally or physically attempts to stop the assault.	Asks parents to stop; attempts to defend mother
Victimised	The child is verbally or physically assaulted during an incident	Child intentionally injured, accidentally hit by a thrown object.
Participates	The child is forced or “voluntarily” joins in the assaults	Coerced to participate; used as spy; joins in taunting mother
Eyewitness	The child directly observes the assault	Watches assault or is present to hear verbal abuse
Overhears	The child hears, though does not see, the assault	Hears yelling, threats, or breaking of objects.
Observes the initial effects	The child sees some of the immediate consequences of the assault	Sees bruises or injuries; police; ambulance; damaged property; intense emotions
Experiences the aftermath	The child faces changes in his/her life as a consequence of the assault.	Experiences maternal depression; change in parenting; separation from father; relocation
Hears about it	The child is told or overhears conversations about the assault.	Learns of the assault from mother, sibling, relative, or someone else
Ostensibly unaware	The child does not know of the assault, according to the source.	Assault occurred away from home or while children were away; or occurred when mother believed child was sleep.

**Source: Holden (2003)**

Holden (2003) claimed that “Exposed” is a better term than “witnessed” or “observed”, because it is more inclusive of the different types of experiences and does not assume that the child actually observed the violence.

The term “exposure” has been adopted in the present study to refer to females who have a history of family violence, whereas the females reported the direct experience of family violence by being an object for any type of violence or only witnessing violence inside the family, or even both together. However, in some parts of the thesis, there was a need to distinguish between females who are victims of direct violence and those who are

witnesses. Throughout the thesis I have used the term “perpetrator” to refer to the person who commits family violence and the term “victim” to refer to the member of the family exposed to this violence.

## 2. Inconsistencies in the definitions of terms.

Many concepts are used by researchers to refer to different forms of family violence, such as wife abuse, marital abuse, conjugal violence, intimate violence, woman battery, child abuse, and child maltreatment (Kashani & Allan, 1998). Sometimes these terms are used interchangeably to refer to family violence, while at other times a particular term is used to reflect a specific meaning (i.e., “woman abuse” to highlight the fact that most victims are women) (Barnish, 2004). In addition to these multiple terms, there are behavioural and legal definitions of family violence. With so many varying terms and definitions, there can be a lack of clarity about what is meant by family violence, leading to inconsistencies in identification, assessment, and intervention, as well as in research (Edleson, 1999).

Recent efforts have sought to distinguish between terms such as violence, abuse, and maltreatment. However, such attempts have not led to any consensus and, to date, there are no definitions that are accepted by all scholars, researchers, and other professionals. According to Giovannoni and Beccerea (1979), the definition of family violence tends to vary from setting to setting and even from study to study, and disciplinary differences often serve to further compound the difficulty of arriving at a common definition.

## 3. Definitions can affect the measurement of family violence

It is important to have a definition of, and a frame of reference for, family violence. This is also applicable to other types of abuse such as child abuse and children who witness violence. Some researchers (Brownridge & Hall, 1999; Ellsberg & Heise, 2005) have argued that it is difficult to assess the extent of family violence due to the fact that researchers use different definitions, with broader definitions resulting in the reporting of higher rates of family violence than narrower definitions, even if they are studying the same population and applying the same methods of data collection (Walsh et al., 2008). Hence, it is difficult to measure the frequency of family violence and whether rates are increasing or decreasing in a particular population.

### **3.2.1 Defining family violence in the international literature**

The terms 'family violence', 'domestic violence', or any related nomenclature, are a combination of terms which can be defined with reference to various contextual elements, such as relationships, types of offense, and family structure. These terms may be interpreted differently depending on the particular legal policy, service provision, or research view taken (Mears, 2003). Family violence, in its most basic form, generally refers to violent or abusive behaviour in the home directed towards one or more persons (Kashani & Allan, 1998). The use of the term 'Family Violence' throughout this thesis reflects a social perspective on family violence.

The most frequently used definition of violence was proposed by Gelles and Straus (1979). These authors defined violence as "an act carried out with the intention, or perceived intention of physically hurting another person." This definition includes spankings and shoving, as well as other forms of behaviour which do not typically lead to injury. Thus, the definition covers considerably more behaviour than that typically viewed as physical abuse (Gelles & Straus, 1979).

"Physical hurting" in this definition refers to a range of acts from slight pain, as in a slap, to murder. The basis for the "intention to hurt" may range from concern for a child's safety (as when a child is spanked for going into the street) to hostility so intense that the death of the other is desired (Gelles & Straus, 1979). Inclusion of the requirement of "intent" has long been a source of confusion and controversy in definitions of aggression and violence. In part, this is because intent and motive are attributes attached to actions (by the actor or by those with whom the actor interacts) at the time of or following the act (Bandura, 1973:4).

Some early studies of family violence limited the definition of family violence to the two-person adult relationship, with the female as the victim and the male as the perpetrator (Trickett & Schellenbach, 1998). This type of violence may refer to what is known as intimate partner violence (IPV), partner abuse, or spousal abuse. IPV is violence committed by a spouse, ex-spouse, or current or former boyfriend or girlfriend. It occurs among both heterosexual and same-sex couples and is often a repeated offense. Both men and women are victims of IPV, but the literature indicates that women are substantially more likely than men to suffer physical, and probably psychological, injuries from IPV (Gelles 1997; Rennison & Welchans 2000).

Some researchers focus only on physical violence to mothers, whereas others assess whether the child has observed the assault or experienced additional types of family violence (Jaffe et al., 1990; Kashani & Allan, 1998; Gelles, 1997). Some researchers debate whether family violence should be a gender-specific or neutral referent, and/or whether it encompasses all forms and incidents of abuse in all types of intimate relationships (Muehlenhard & Kimes, 1999). In this context, Schular (1992) defines violence as an exercise of power to impose one's will on a person or with an object.

Gender-based violence is defined by the U.N. Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1992) as "violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman, or violence that affects women disproportionately. It includes acts that inflict physical, mental, or sexual harm or suffering, threats of such acts, coercion, and other deprivations of liberty" (General Recommendation No. 19). This definition limits the victim of violence to women, whereas the term family violence is broader and may describe acts of violence between family members, including adult partners, a parent against a child, caretakers, partners against elders, and between siblings (United Nations, 1992).

Other researchers, such as Levesque (1999), hold that "family violence includes family members' acts of omission or commission resulting in physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, neglect, or other forms of maltreatment that hamper individuals' healthy development" (p. 13). This definition highlights some of the most common forms of violence between family members and includes the possible effects of the violent acts.

Family violence is also varied in its severity and consequences. Emery and Laumann-Billings (1998) distinguish two levels of abuse—maltreatment (i.e., minimal or moderate forms of abuse, such as hitting, pushing, and name-calling) and violence (i.e., more violent abuse involving serious endangerment, physical injury, and sexual violation). Here, abuse is the broader term, and maltreatment and violence are considered subtypes of abuse, varying with respect to level of intensity (Holden et al., 1998).

In England, a review of government publications in 2001 identified 14 definitions of family violence, indicating what has been described as a "definitional crisis" (Radford, 2003). More recently, in 2004, the UK government introduced a new definition of family violence, replacing all previous definitions used across the government and public sector. This definition is not a statutory definition, but is used by government departments to inform both policy development and identification of domestic violence cases by police, the



Crown Prosecution Service, and the UK Border Agency. This new definition defines domestic violence as:

Any incident of threatening behaviour, violence or abuse [psychological, physical, sexual, financial, or emotional] between adults who are or have been intimate partners or family members, regardless of gender or sexuality.  
(UK Home Office, 2010)

In September 2012, the UK government announced that the definition of domestic violence would be widened to include those aged 16-17 and the wording would be amended to reflect coercive control. The decision followed a Government consultation which saw respondents call overwhelmingly for this change. The title of the definition will be 'domestic violence and abuse' (Home Office, 2012)

Definitions of family violence in the Australian literature reflect a contemporary recognition that violence, whether defined as domestic or family, includes a range of violent behaviours: physical violence, sexual, verbal, psychological, and emotional abuse, as well as social isolation and economic or financial abuse (Blumel et al., 1993; Distaff Associates, 1991; Henderson, 2000).

Stanko et al. (1998, p. 12) set forth a definition of family violence that reflects the definition used in most of the international studies reviewed:

Domestic violence is a generic term, which refers to abusive and assaultive behaviour between intimates, among members of a household, and/or between former partners. Its most dominant form is man to woman within a partnership or former partnership.

In conclusion, there is no broad definition suitable for an international level. Definitions of family violence tend to vary from setting to setting and even from study to study, and disciplinary differences often serve to further compound the problem of definition (Giovannoni & Beccerea, 1979).

### **3.2.2 Defining family violence in the Saudi context**

#### **3.2.2.1 Official's efforts to define Family violence**

To date, there has been no statutory or shared definition of family violence used by the Saudi legal system or criminal justice agencies and researchers (AL-Tayar, 2010). This has implications for the comparability of research, as well as for co-ordinated policy development and action. Non-profit organisations in Saudi Arabia that deal with cases of family violence have used the World Health Organisation's (WHO) definition, which was

published in 2002. According to this definition, violence refers to 'the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, or deprivation' (Krug et al., 2002, p. 5). This definition covers a broad range of outcomes, including psychological harm and deprivation. It is a general definition that can be used for any type of violence; it is not limited to family violence within an intimate relationship.

In 2009, a group of professionals working under the banner of the National Family Safety Program (NFSP) called for a conference in Riyadh to discuss the problem of family violence, and to produce a definition of what constitutes family violence in Saudi Arabia (NFSP, 2009). At the conference, they outlined the challenges and obstacles that they are facing, and at the top of that list was the lack of a standardised definition. Although the attendees at the conference did not come up with a clear definition, they asked the policy makers and Saudi authorities to formulate a legal definition for the problem, and to implement clear legal norms and guidelines for dealing with it.

#### **3.2.2.2 Saudi scholars' efforts to define Family violence**

The first attempt to define family violence in Saudi was a study carried out by Al-Tyar in 1997. The study was funded and published by Naif Arab University for Security Sciences (NAUSS). In order to produce a definition of family violence in a Saudi Arabian context, the study attempted to define family violence in general and was predominantly based on western literature such as Straus and Gelles' work. Although this study was the first attempt to provide a definition of family violence and provided a good analysis of the typical characteristics of the perpetrators of violence, the study did not provide any information about the sample type or from which country the researchers collected their data from. We can suppose that the study was carried out in Saudi Arabia because it had been funded by a Saudi university. Yet throughout the study, the researcher only mentioned an Arabian family without any clear reference to Saudi society.

Another definition was provided by Aba-Alrgosh (2002), a Saudi sociologist who defined family violence as any behaviour that aims to harm a family member or a group of family members at "the horizontal level", such as brother to sister, or at the "ventricular level", such as parent to child. Family violence can range from being directed towards the mind, such as criticism, sarcasm, or insults, to physical harm, which can even lead to death (Aba-Alrgosh et al., 2002, p. 23).

In summary, Western literature had provided a wider perspective for defining family violence, compared to Saudi literature. The current study was based on the Western literature as a foundation to define family violence. By adopting a definition we can situate it in the Saudi context.

The definition adopted by the current study was The UK cross-government definition of domestic violence:

"Any incident of threatening behaviour, violence or abuse (psychological, physical, sexual, financial or emotional) between adults who are or have been intimate partners or family members, regardless of gender or sexuality."

It should be added that this definition covers most forms of family violence, however it is only limited to adult relationships and does not consider people under the age of 18. Therefore the definition was amended as follows to serve the aims of the present study.

The current study defines family violence as:

any incident of threatening behaviour, violence or abuse (psychological, physical, sexual, financial, or emotional) and neglect against a young female under the age of 18 by any member of the family (mother, father, brother, sister, grandparents, in-laws, and step-family members), including direct exposure by being the subject of violence or by witnessing violence.

### **3.3 The extent and nature of family violence in the international context**

Due to the inconsistencies in the definitions of family violence, this concept was often defined differently across studies. As might be expected, broad definitions of family violence yield relatively high prevalence rates, whereas narrow definitions yield lower rates. The full extent and nature of family violence is still being debated (Foran et al., 2013).

Internationally, a number of studies have been conducted to estimate the prevalence of different forms of family violence expended greatly in the second half of 1990. According to a 2006 United Nations report, at least one survey on family violence had been conducted in each of 71 countries and at least one national survey was available in 41 countries (United Nations, 2006)

To assess the prevalence of family violence at an international level a review was undertaken of recent studies conducted by a number of international organisations that regularly encounter family violence including UNICEF, the UN, NGOs, and women's rights organisations. Key western studies which focused on the prevalence of family violence were also reviewed.

According to McGee (2001), in the context of family violence the word 'prevalence' refers to the number of people that are exposed to it, whereas 'incidence' refers to the actual number of family violence events. Measuring the prevalence of family violence can take two forms. One is period prevalence, which refers to incidents that have occurred in the last year; the most recent incidents. The other is lifetime prevalence, which refers to whole-life experiences, or those experienced throughout childhood (Walby & Allen, 2004).

Several international studies have been conducted to assess the extent and nature of family violence. For example, in 2002 the World Health Organisation (WHO) conducted a study in which 48 international population-based surveys were reviewed, to assess the prevalence of family violence among women. The study found that the lifetime prevalence of family violence for women ranged from 10 percent to 69 percent (WHO, 2002).

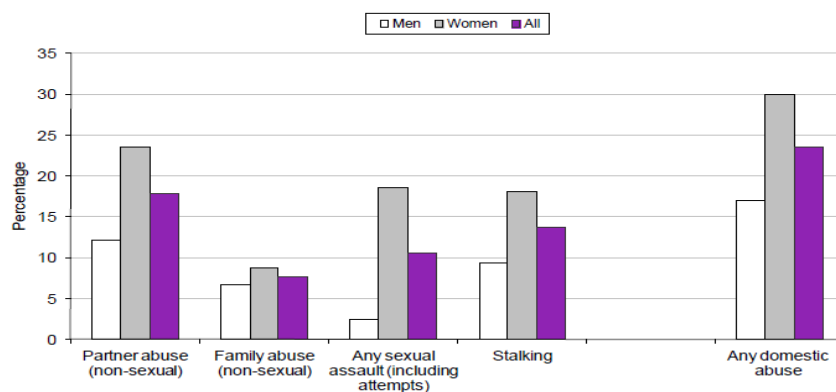
Early studies conducted in the USA sought to raise awareness of family violence and to assess the extent of the problem. The first national surveys investigating the problem were the 1975 *National Family Violence Survey* and the 1985 *National Family Violence Resurvey*, which were both conducted by Straus and Gelles (1975; 1985). The findings revealed that approximately 6 million women a year were victims of some level of domestic violence in the United States. Of these 6 million women, 1.8 million per year were seriously assaulted. The main difference between these surveys and most other surveys is that the data from these surveys came from detailed interviews with members of the general population, not from cases that came to the attention of official agencies and professionals.

Between 1996 and 2001 there was no dedicated national survey investigating family violence in the UK. However, the British Crime Survey (BCS) included a set of questions relating to domestic violence (Mirrlees-Black, 1999). From April 2012 the BCS has been renamed 'The Crime Survey for England and Wales', to better reflect its geographical coverage (Home Office, 2012). The data from the 1996 BCS revealed that 1 in 4 women had experienced some form of domestic abuse in their lifetime. The 2001 BCS found that the lifetime prevalence of domestic abuse was five times lower than that detected in the 1996 BCS (Walby & Allen 2004).

One major strength of the BCS is that it covered many types of crimes which are often not reported to the police, in particular domestic violence offences. Moreover, the BCS that was used to collect the data for domestic violence utilised a computer-based methodology to provide greater privacy to the participants (Matczak et al., 2011). More recently, the survey conducted in 2010 measured the prevalence of domestic violence via face-to-face

interviews. Some researchers (Walby & Myhill 2001; Walby & Allen, 2004) have argued that this methodology is more likely to yield underestimated figures of the prevalence of domestic abuse, particularly as some of the women who participated in the survey were accompanied by their partner while completing the questionnaire. The partners themselves also participated in the survey. Nonetheless, the BCS provides a comprehensive picture of the prevalence and the nature of domestic violence in England and Wales.

**Figure 3.1 Prevalence of intimate violence experienced since the age of 16, by sex and violence category, 2010/2011 BCS**



**Source: Chaplin et al. (2011)**

The 2010/2011 BCS provides details of the lifetime prevalence of family violence, as shown in Figure 3.1 above, and also details relating to recent experiences of such violence; those occurring ‘within the last year’. The data indicated that 30 percent of women and 17 percent of men had experienced domestic abuse between the ages of 16 and 59 (Smith et al., 2012). This result confirmed that women are more likely than men to experience such violence. With regard to the prevalence of domestic abuse experienced ‘within the last year’ reported in the survey, women were again more likely to be exposed; 7 percent of women reported exposure, compared to 5 percent of men (Smith et al., 2012). Similar patterns are evident in the findings of international research. A Canadian survey by the Victorian Government (2009) found that women were three times more likely than men to experience intimate partner violence, five times more likely to require medical treatment, and five times more likely to report fearing for their lives (Victorian Government, 2009).

Another study that measured the prevalence of family violence was the *National Survey of Children’s Exposure to Violence* (NatSCEV) which was conducted in 2009 in the USA (Finkelhor et al., 2009). It was a comprehensive national survey which attempted to

measure children's exposure to violence, not only in the family context but also in school and the wider community, across all ages from birth to 17 years of age. In terms of the prevalence of violence against children, the study indicated that nearly 7 in 8 children (86.6 percent) who reported being exposed to violence during their lifetimes also reported being exposed to violence within the past year, which indicated that these children were at an on-going risk of violent victimisation. It should be mentioned that this result was not limited to family violence only; rather it included all types of violence that children were exposed to including that experienced at school, and in the wider community as well. The results from the study relating to exposure to violence within the family revealed that nearly 1 in 10 (9.8 percent) children had witnessed violence between family members (Finkelhor et al., 2009).

In Australia, the incidence of family violence has been measured in two ways. One is by quantifying the number of instances reaching the attention of institutions such as hospitals, the police, and courts, and the other is via population surveys (VicHealth, 2008). These measurements have generated varied results, depending upon the way the information was collected, the subset of the community under investigation, and the types of incidents being quantified. According to the Victorian Department of Justice, in 2005–2006 over 16,000 applications for family violence intervention orders were made to Victorian courts (Victorian Department of Justice, 2009). Further insight into the prevalence of family violence in Australia has been attained based on the number of family incidents to which the police are called each year. In 2008, police attended 34,000 such incidents across Victoria (Victoria Police, 2010).

Many studies measuring the prevalence of family violence or a specific form of such violence have been conducted; however, different studies have often relied on different definitions of violence, and different methods of measuring it. Thus the estimates yielded by these studies vary greatly, and they often only relate to a subset of that exposure. Not only do these partial measurements fail to reveal the full extent of family violence, they can also fail to account fully for the multiple victimisations that many children experience; such as the co-occurrence of certain types of violence (for example, intimate partner violence and child maltreatment or neglect within a household).

Thus the extent to which exposure to one type of violence may make a child more vulnerable to other types of violence and victimisation may not be discernible from such studies, as may be the case with regard to the cumulative effects of repeated exposure to violence both as a direct victim, and as a witness.

In summary, many international surveys have relied on life-time prevalence to assess the extent of family violence (WHO, 2006). The current study measured the extent of family violence based on life time prevalence, and in addition it assessed the frequency of family violence based on the number of family violence incidents reported in the last 12 months. It should be added that the Western literature placed more emphasis on intimate partner violence and less attention has been paid to other types of violence that occur between family members, such as siblings abuse .

### **3.4 The extent and nature of family violence in the Saudi context**

The study of family violence is still in its infancy. In Saudi Arabian society, numerous myths and misconceptions surround this problem (AL -Tayar, 2010). The prevalence of family violence is still questionable because it is of a sensitive nature and the actual size of the problem is likely to be under-estimated (Al Mahroos, 2007). The extent of family violence in Saudi Arabia is difficult to assess because of constraints on the media and the lack of data. It would be true to say that the actual extent of family violence in Saudi society has not been clear until now.

Recently, family violence cases reported by the media in Saudi Arabia have shown that family violence is growing in this society. However, little is known about the full extent of the problem, and answers are difficult to find on even the most basic aspects of the problem, such as the number of children affected by family violence, the official definition of family violence, and the requisite punishment of family violence perpetrators. The following discussion will cover the official reports and the available published studies about family violence in Saudi Arabia.

#### **3.4.1 The extent and nature of the issue according to Saudi Arabia's Official reports**

In Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Social Affairs is the government sector responsible for social reform in the kingdom, and provides all social services that the community might need. The problem of family violence and child abuse in Saudi Arabia has been discussed in medical literature since 1990, but the first official study published by the Ministry of Social Affairs was released in 2004. Carried out by Dr. Al-Youssef and his colleagues, the study was titled "Domestic violence: Causes, effects, and results in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia". It was the first official study in Saudi Arabia about family violence aimed at

determining the extent and nature of this issue. Such violence was perpetrated against vulnerable members inside the family such as women, children, elderly people, and domestic labourers. The study used a survey approach to collect data from 369 participants across the country.

The results of this study showed that family violence is often located in broken families because of divorce, the death of a parent, or an addiction affecting one of its members. The most common type of abuse found was neglect (93% of the total sample), while sexual abuse was a less-common type of abuse reported by only 78 cases in the total sample of 369 cases. The study also found that most cases of family violence directed to women were psychological and physical violence. Regarding domestic labourers, they were usually subjected to physical violence, while the elderly and children were more vulnerable to neglect (Al-Youssef et al., 2004).

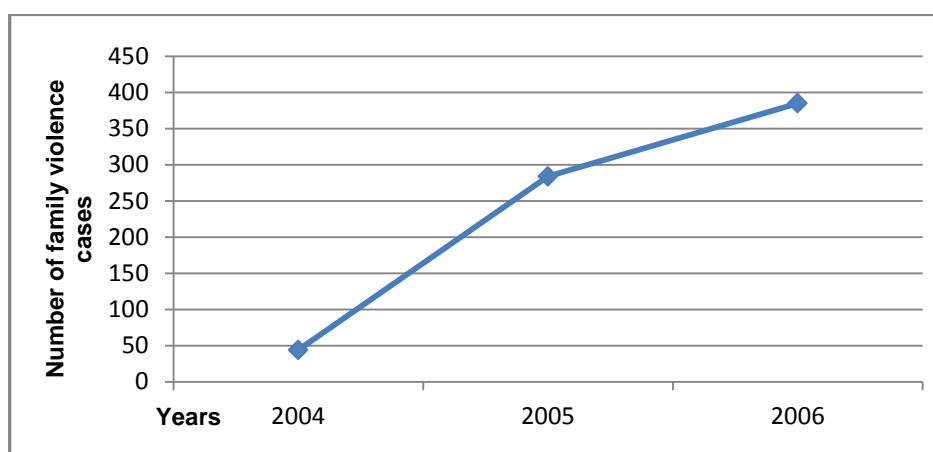
The result of this study was contrary to another study carried out by the United Nations in 2006, which estimated the number of children exposed to family violence in Saudi Arabia to be one million children (United Nations, 2009). This number is considered high compared with the official report by the Saudi authorities. According to the Crime Research Centre within the Interior Ministry, 21% of Saudi children are abused at home. However, these statistics only represent 10% of all cases of abuse in the Kingdom (Crime Research Centre, 2009).

The Saudi government also established the first-ever national human rights group in the Kingdom, the National Society for Human Rights (NSHR) in March 2004. This group has offices across the country and has looked into everything from prison conditions to women's rights and child abuse (Saudi Press Agency (SPA), 2006). According to a 2008 report in the daily newspaper *Okaz*, the NSHR's Riyadh branch dealt with 233 cases of family violence during 2008. In fact, there is no official source for this figure. In other words, these numbers are not published in official reports by the NSHR but were published in a daily newspaper.

In 2006 the NSHR published their first and only statistical report about family violence in Saudi Arabia. This report provided some details about the family violence cases received by them during 2004-2006 (Figure 3. 2)



**Figure 3.2 Total of family violence cases received by the NSHR between 2004-2006**



Source: The National Society for Human Rights, the Statistical Book for the year (2006).

### **3.4.2 The extent and nature of family violence according to Saudi Arabia's studies**

There is a lack of a published literature about family violence in Saudi Arabia, even though the first report of the existence of the problem appeared two decades ago (Al-Angari, 2004). Saudi literature recognises the need for a theoretical framework on how experiencing and witnessing family violence can play a significant role in child development (Al-Qahtani, 2009).

Historically, family violence was initially recognised in Saudi Arabia by health-care professionals as a rare problem affecting the well-being of few children in the country. Therefore, from 1990 to 2000 there were only 11 reports published in the medical literature, and all of these were case studies and all involved violence against children (Al Ayed et al., 1998; Al-Eissa, 1998, 1991; Al Jumaah, et al., 1993; Al Mugeiren and Ganelin, 1990; Al-Odaidan et al., 2000; Elkerdany et al., 1999; Karthikeyan et al., 2000; Kattan, 1994; Kattan et al., 1995; Roy et al., 1999).

The landmark study was a study presented by Al-Eissa in 1990. The study asserted that violence towards children should be considered a major national problem, and most subsequent studies pointed out that there are many cases of violence that have not been documented. It attributed this to a lack of experience among some physicians with regard to the incidences of domestic violence or lack of knowledge regarding the proper action to be taken in such cases (Elkerdany et al., 1999; Roy et al., 1999; Kattan, 1998).

Al-Eissa's study was a longitudinal study; the researcher studied seven cases of children (five boys and two girls) aged between five months to seven years. These children were subjected to family violence over four years. The study found that all these children had been exposed to family violence many times before the doctors at the hospital discovered that the children had been harmed. One of the children died due to physical abuse by the father. The result of this study raised questions about the effectiveness and efficiency of the procedures in dealing with family violence cases at hospitals and the lack of training to help doctors at hospitals recognise such cases and report them to the appropriate authorities.

The most recent medical report about family violence came after this reform from the child protection centre at the King Abdul Aziz Medical City for the National Guard in Riyadh. The report documented and analysed all the cases of family violence received by the hospital from 2000 until 2008.

The report points out that from January 2000 to December 2008, a total of 188 cases were referred to the social protection team at the hospital. Of this total, 133 (70.9%) were investigated as child abuse and neglect cases. The remaining 55 (29.1%) cases had insufficient evidence to support child abuse and neglect claims at the time of case assessment, and therefore they were not considered child abuse or neglect cases. Of the 133 investigated cases, 94 (70.7%) were substantiated as abuse or neglect, while 39 (29.3%) were treated as suspected cases by the team. The mean age of the victims was 5 years and males comprised 53.4% of the total number of cases. Taking all cases into consideration, physical abuse was the most prevalent form and noted in 65 (48.9%) cases followed by 43 (32.3%) cases of neglect, 20 (15%) cases of sexual abuse, and 5 (3.8%) cases of emotional abuse. Parents were the perpetrators in 65 (48.9%) cases. Other identified perpetrators included siblings in 18 (13.5%) cases, household workers in 12 (9%) cases, and others in 10 (7.5%) cases. Of all the investigated cases, 62 (46.6%) were referred to legal services.

Several medical studies have found that the majority of family violence cases in Saudi Arabia were physical abuse against children (Al-Eissa, 1991; Kattan, 1995; Al-Ayed et al., 1998; Roy et al., 1999; Elkerdaby et al., 1999). In the medical literature, only 39 cases of child abuse were reported in Saudi Arabia in the last decade; 18 were cases of physical abuse. In fact, physical abuse is more visible in the medical reports than other forms of abuse, and this may be because physical abuse is more easily diagnosable than other forms of abuse.

Sexual abuse cases were reported less often in the medical literature. In the 11 medical articles published by the *Annals of Saudi Medicine* between 1990 and 2005, only 7 cases of sexual abuse were reported and all of them were against children. Of the documented cases of child sexual abuse in the past two decades in the medical literature, girls were the victims in 4 of these 7 cases, and all of them were under 11 years old, while in three cases the victims were boys under 9 years of age (Al-Khenaizan et al., 2004; Kattan, 1994; Kathikeyan et al., 2000; Al-Ayed et al., 1998).

In fact, in these seven reported cases of child sexual abuse, nearly all the parents refused to acknowledge the validity of the medical diagnosis that their children had been sexually assaulted. In one case, the mother had previously had suspicions that the father had been an aggressor against their daughter (three years old). The mother reported that the father was drug and alcohol dependent and had behaved inappropriately under the influence of these drugs (Al-Khenaizan et al., 2004).

After ten years of medical literature examining the problem of family violence, Saudi academics and sociology researchers are becoming more concerned about family violence. Since the early appearance of family violence in social studies in 1997, the studies have tried to determine whether family violence exists in Saudi society. In 2000, the first sociological study appeared that addressed the problem in detail. Afterwards, studies became more specific and began to investigate other aspects of the problem, such as the type of violence, who the victims and the offenders were, and the reasons behind family violence.

The first sociological study to address the problem of family violence in detail was a Ph.D. thesis written by Al-Saud (2000) from the Department of Social Work at King Saud University in Riyadh. The study discussed the problem of violence against children at a time when Saudi society did not even recognise the existence of a problem. However, the results of the research demonstrated the existence and high prevalence of child abuse in Saudi society. Instead of just determining whether the problem existed, Al-Saud's study was the first study that investigated family violence in more detail and provided information about the many aspects of family violence, such as the causes of family violence, the forms of abuse, and the characteristics of the victims.

Al-Saud's study (2000) revealed that the most common type of child abuse in Saudi society was physical abuse, which accounted for 91.5% of the violence. This was followed by neglect, which was estimated to account for 87.3% of the total sample, emotional abuse, which was estimated to account for 53.5%, and finally sexual abuse, which

accounted for 46.5% of the total sample. The percentage of children who had experienced more than one type of abuse was 16.9% of the total sample. These results have been supported by several other studies, such as Al Tayar (2010), Al-Zahrani (2005), Al-Angari, (2004), and Al-Qarni, (2005). A possible explanation for the high rate of physical abuse may be the cultural, social, and family values of the Saudi society, which all influence child rearing methods in the home. For example, the acceptance of corporal punishment in Saudi society may encourage parents to use harsh methods of discipline. In fact, social values and attitudes represent a major challenge to efforts aimed at ending family violence.

The study also found that 66% of the victims of family violence were children less than two years of age. This result has been supported by several articles from the medical literature (Al Ayed et al., 1998). However, it would be hard to generalise the results because this study only covered the central region of Saudi Arabia, particularly Riyadh city. This study was followed by several studies conducted by postgraduate students at different Saudi universities. A study conducted by Al-Zahrani (2005) was more representative of Saudi society because it was a large survey study covering three out of the five major regions in Saudi Arabia (Central, East, and West regions). Al-Zahrani collected his sample from students and householders aged 18 years old and over and 65% of the sample was male while 35% was female. He found that 21% of the sample had been exposed to family violence.

The study found that the highest rate of family violence among participants was found to be emotional neglect (27%). Emotional abuse was the second most prevalent type of family violence (22.8%). Ranking third in prevalence was sexual abuse (22.7%) and physical neglect was fourth (18.4%). The least common type of abuse was physical abuse (13%). The study also identified the prevalence rate for other forms of family violence, such as medical neglect (9.4%).

The results of this study contradicted a study completed by Al-Saud (2000), who found that the highest prevalence of child abuse, as reported by professionals and caregivers was that of child physical abuse at 91.5 %. The study also contradicted other local studies in the medical literature such as Al-Eissa (1991), Kattan (1994,1995), Al-Ayed et al. (1998), and Elkerdany et al. (1999), who found that the majority of child abuse cases in Saudi Arabia were physical abuse.

The disagreement in these studies could be related to the methods and the definitions that were used. For example, all of the studies, with the exception of Al-Saud (2000), found their sample from patients who were brought to hospitals seeking help. These cases did

not take into consideration all children in Saudi society for several reasons, such as all of these medical studies collected their data from the three main hospitals in the central regions of Saudi Arabia whereas there are more than two hundred hospitals in the whole country according to the Ministry of Health (1996). The other reason is that the medical literature emphasised that a third of abused children were not brought to the hospital until the morning after the injury, a third came in after one to four days, while, in some situations, parents would not bring their children to a hospital unless their medical condition was critical. It should be emphasised that these cases of child abuse do not actually represent the actual prevalence of family violence that occurs in Saudi society.

However, most recent studies agreed with the results that were reached by Al-Zahrani (2005), which found that psychological violence is the most common type of violence in Saudi society. For example, Al-Fayez's study (2006), which was entitled *The Phenomenon of Violence Against Women in Saudi Society*, sought to investigate the prevalence of violence against women in Saudi Arabia, particularly in Riyadh city. The sample was drawn from professionals who dealt with family violence cases in several public hospitals in Riyadh city. The study found that the most common type of violence against women was psychological violence, which accounted for 95% of the total sample of the 219 abused women. This was followed by physical abuse, which accounted for 90% of the cases.

Al-Khatib's study (2005) also agreed with Al-Zahrani's study that psychological violence was the most common type of violence in Saudi Arabia. She also carried out her study in Riyadh city and the sample was drawn from professionals who dealt with family violence cases in several public hospitals in Riyadh city. Al-Khatib's study presented a new type of violence against women in Saudi society, "Administrative violence", which is that committed by the Saudi authorities who disregard crimes committed against women under the pretext that family violence is a private family matter. There are no set penalties for the perpetrators in most of the cases that come to the hospital. In addition, there are some regulations and existing obstacles that prevent women from exercising their lives normally without a man in her life, whether this man is a father, husband, brother, or son. An example of this is the guardianship system, which requires women to obtain permission from male guardians to conduct their most basic affairs like traveling or receiving medical care.

Al-Mohaimed's study (2008) found that psychological violence is the most common type of violence in Saudi society. He also conducted his study in Riyadh city. The sample consisted of 232 Saudi women and 72 professionals who dealt with family violence cases

in several public hospitals in Riyadh city. The study found that, of the 51.4% of women who had been subjected to family violence, 47.7% of these cases were psychological violence. The study also identified the prevalence rate for different forms of family violence, such as physical violence (32.5%), economic violence (26.3%), and finally sexual violence (4.3%). The study provided more detail about the different types of psychological violence. For example, the study found that the most common form of psychological violence was verbal violence (36.8%), ridicule and contempt for women (32.5%), and finally preventing women from visiting their friends or relatives (12.7%). Preventing women from obtaining an education accounted for 4.3% of the cases and preventing women from working accounted for 2.8%.

Al-Mohaimed's study shed some light on some of the types of family violence that are prevalent in Saudi society, such as economic violence against women, but did not receive adequate attention from researchers. According to Sharifa Al-Shamlan, supervisor of the Women's Department in the Commission on Human Rights in the Eastern region of Saudi Arabia, the number of cases of economic violence against women is increasing. She explained that "economic abuse against women is spreading amongst the poor sectors of society, and these acts include the denial of inheritance, as well as preventing women from working or earning a salary, and so on". Al-Shamlan also highlighted the increase in the cases of women being prevented from travel, education, and marriage. Despite the attempts by the Commission to fully address these cases, there must be a system overruling. There is an urgent need for a law on family violence with clear guidelines on implementing mechanisms, a monitoring and coordinating body, and sanctions against perpetrators.

It should be added that most of the studies reviewed in this paper were carried out in the central region of Saudi Arabia, in particular Riyadh city, with the exception of Al-Zahrani's study (2005), which covered most of the regions in Saudi Arabia. Most of these studies drew their sample from professionals dealing with family violence cases, except Al-Zahrani who collected his data from the general population. So, it would be hard to generalise these results and more national surveys are needed to investigate the problem of family violence in Saudi society.

Despite the rise of awareness about family violence in Saudi society and the documentation of family violence cases in Saudi literature, little is known about sexual abuse or any other types of sexual assault. Even after the conception of organisations dealing with the problem of family violence, such as the National Society for Human Rights (NSHR) and the Commission for Social Protection, the actual scope of the problem

remains unclear. This might be due to the scarcity of the annual reports, whether from government or civil organisations, dealing with the problem. Even the published reports do not provide enough detail about the problem of family violence, such as the types of family violence cases, as well as the characteristics of both the victims and the perpetrators of family violence.

Reporting of sexual abuse in conservative societies like Saudi Arabia is rare. Often parents may not believe their children and, if they do believe them, they may not seek outside recourse because this could bring shame to the family. Instead, they may prefer to solve the problem as an internal family matter (Al-Saud, 2000; Haj-Yahia, 1995). In some other cases, children themselves tell their parents that they have been abused sexually by a relative or a domestic worker. For example, in the two cases reported by Al-Ayed and his colleagues in 1998, two boys had been abused sexually by male domestic workers known to the family, but their parents refused to believe their children. Even in the medical literature, only seven cases of child sexual abuse have been reported and, in most of these cases, the parents refused to acknowledge the validity of the medical diagnosis that their children had been sexually assaulted, except in one case where the mother had her suspicions that the father had been an aggressor against their daughter (three years old). The mother reported that the father was drug and alcohol dependent, and had behaved inappropriately when under the influence of drugs (Al-Khenaizan et al., 2004). According to a study conducted by Al-Brithen (2006), there is a significant relationship between consumption of alcohol and acts of domestic violence in Saudi society.

Despite the researchers' efforts to investigate the reality of sexual abuse in Saudi society, these efforts have been limited either by the government or by the local community. For example, Al-Zahrani (2005) attempted to investigate the common types of child abuse in Saudi and asked the participants in more detail about sexual abuse but Saudi officials asked him to delete all of the questions about sexual abuse or integrate those questions into one general question.

On the other hand, the Saudi media and some international human rights organisations have covered sexual abuse in Saudi society with more freedom. However, the coverage was mainly focused on sexual abuse outside of the family, such as abuse of domestic workers by their employers or the sexual abuse by domestic workers against children or women in Saudi Arabia. Over the last five years, the Saudi press has published many stories of sexual abuse of children and women in order to raise awareness about the problems.

Regarding the abuse of female domestic workers in Saudi Arabia, the media has also published many tragic stories about such cases. Foreign female workers in Saudi Arabia work predominantly as maids and, to some extent, in the nursing sector. Human Rights Watch (2008) estimates that there are 1.5 million female domestic workers in Saudi Arabia. In 2008, Human Rights Watch interviewed 86 workers and 28 of them reported sexual harassment or assault by their employers or agents.

In summary, the current study aimed to fill the gaps in the existing Saudi literature, as a review of the previous studies indicates a lack of a published body of literature about family violence in Saudi, even though the first report of the existence of the problem of violence against children appeared two decades ago. Local studies have focused mostly on child abuse and violence against women, while other types of violence do not receive enough attention from researchers. The current study addressed most of the common forms of family violence (including physical abuse, sexual abuse, and neglect) in addition to witnessing violence between parents and violence by parents towards the female offspring. These types of family violence were rarely addressed in the previous Saudi studies.

Moreover, the local studies have been dominated by a descriptive approach, while some problems require the use of the experimental method. In addition, most studies selected their sample from professionals who deal with family violence cases. There were only a few studies that selected their samples from the victims who were exposed to family violence. The current study collected its data from a large sample from the general population.

### **3.5 Saudi governmental efforts to eliminate the problem of family violence**

Despite the small number of recorded family violence cases in the official report, since 2004, the Ministry of Social Affairs has made efforts to address the issue of family violence against women. For example, they established the General Directorate of Social Protection in 2005. The main objective of this administration is to protect victims of domestic violence, find a safe place for them, and work to solve family problems in order to protect vulnerable women and children from being exposed to violence (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2011). The General Directorate of Social Protection consists of 16 Committees of Social Protection located in various regions of Saudi Arabia.



Not only has the Ministry of Social Affairs made an effort to prevent family violence, but also other government sectors have established programs to prevent and raise awareness about the problem. For example, in 2005, the National Guard Health Affairs established the National Family Safety Programme (NFSP) that raised awareness and led to the training of professionals in various fields and enabled women to educate men on women's rights and the problem of family violence. NFSP officials have been working alongside the Ministry of Social Affairs and the NSHR (NFSP, 2010). According to a United Nations report (2009), from 2004 till 2006, the NSHR received 713 cases of family violence, and 600 pertained to personal affairs.

Recently, in April 2011, the NFSP launched new training for Saudi professionals dealing with family violence cases with a landmark course: 'Fundamental Skills of Management of Domestic Violence Cases.' This program was funded by the British Embassy in Riyadh and the NFSP, and was created in partnership with one of the UK's largest women and children's refuges, The Haven Wolverhampton. The training was conducted in Arabic for 15 social workers in the capital city, Riyadh, during April, and then every three to four months in different provinces across the country. The course material and structure were modified from The Haven's course, with cultural adjustments and local evidence-based knowledge (NFSP, 2011).

Such training courses are genuinely important, especially given that there are inadequate laws, policies, guidelines, and procedures regarding family violence for professionals, among others, on what to do when confronted with cases of family violence or child abuse. Making teachers and medical professionals aware should be made a top priority in order to help them prevent and respond to cases of family violence (Al-Saud, 2000; Kattan, 1998; Al-Mahroos, 2007).

There are many other organisations that have been established by individual efforts, such as the Family Protection Organisation (FPO), established in December of 2007 in Jeddah by the efforts of the social work team at the King Fahd Armed Forces Hospital. The FPO is an institution of civil charities working to protect the rights of children, women, and older people from family violence in all of its forms, manifestations, and degrees. It collaborates with relevant officials on family violence as well as official committees and provides civil coordination with the Commission for Social Protection of the Ministry of Social Affairs to initiate the investigation of battery cases.

Despite the appearance of some organisations concerned with addressing the problem, information about these organisations and their activities, goals, and methods for addressing family violence is limited. Perhaps the only source of information may be the organisations' official websites, which offer limited information, as well as news reports in the daily newspapers.

In addition, there is a dearth of official statistics on family violence. Many researchers argue that family violence is on the rise and that official statistics do not accurately reflect the true rate of family violence cases (Al-Mahroos, 2007; Al-Saud, 2000; Al-Zahrani, 2005). There is no official database which can connect the organisations that deal with family violence, although all these organisations work under the umbrella of the Ministry of Social Affairs. Further, there is an absence of social research centres for the preparation of such studies, and it should be added that the government has not clearly defined family violence or procedures concerning cases; accordingly, enforcement varies from one government body to another (NFSP, 2009). All these factors combined have contributed in one way or another to reducing the number of reports on the problem.

It is possible that the reasons behind the low number of cases reported by committees of protection include the lack of media coverage about the existence of such institutions and the lack of communication between victims and protection institutions. In fact, there is no way to announce to the general public how to communicate with these committees in case of the need of such assistance. The existence of these agencies has not been publicly announced until recently; moreover, most cases which these committees deal with have been transferred to them by hospitals or by the police.

Most recently, in 2007, the National Health Council (NHC), which is the highest health service authority in the kingdom, drafted and issued health-care professionals' mandatory reporting laws and established a National Child Abuse and Neglect Registry. Data on registered cases is to be entered into the registry from all child protection centres at major hospitals in the country (NSP, 2011).

### **3.6 Summary**

Family violence is a multifaceted phenomenon that includes abusive acts toward family members that may be sexual, physical, emotional, psychological, or involve neglect of or denial of rights to another person. Numerous studies have been carried out in an attempt

to explain these phenomena in order to prevent family violence. However, there continues to be no agreement on a definition that all professionals can accept.

In Western literature, several measuring techniques have been used to determine the extent of family violence. Surveys, official reports, and clinical studies all offer professionals insight into, and information about, the nature and extent of family violence. Unfortunately, each of these measures has internal flaws that are acknowledged by those who use them. The study of family violence in the Saudi Arabian context is still in its infancy due to the restrictions imposed on the researchers by the Saudi authorities. Although the studies on family violence in Saudi Arabia started more than 20 years ago, there is still no agreement among researchers regarding what constitutes family violence in the Kingdom. In addition, there are inherent problems in attempting to measure the extent of family violence in Saudi Arabia.

## **CHAPTER 4 FEMALE DELINQUENCY**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Many studies within the criminology literature discuss the problem of delinquency in young offenders. Most of the published work comes from America and Europe (Kierkus & Hewitt, 2009) although a number of studies are available from researchers in other parts of the world, including the Arab world (Al-Sharideh, 1999). This chapter focuses on female delinquency and will cover the following areas: definitions, and the extent and nature of the problem, in order to obtain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon from both International and Saudi perspectives.

### **4.2 Female delinquency in International literature**

#### **4.2.1 Defining female delinquency in International literature**

Juvenile delinquency is an ambiguous term. It has been suggested that each society defines delinquency differently and that there is no fixed concept of what constitutes delinquent acts (Martin, 2005). The concept of delinquency is considered to be as complicated to define as any other concept related to human behaviour (Rutter & Giller, 1984). In other words, delinquency is a socially constructed concept, which means that it is a product of prevailing thoughts and perspectives (Burfeind & Bartusch, 2011). As Bartol and Bartol (2008) note, each society has a different set of values, meaning that what may be judged as an offensive act in one society may not meet those criteria in another or even in the same society at a later time.

Before defining the term 'delinquency' it is important to distinguish between delinquency and deviance, which are sometimes misunderstood as interchangeable terms. Deviance is behaviour that is neither strictly criminal nor illegal, but that does not conform to the norms and values accepted by the majority of the community or society (Giddens, 1989). An individual's behaviour can only be qualified as 'deviant' if it differs from the norms of other individuals within the same developmental stage (Baumrind, 1985). Thus, some behaviour which may be termed 'delinquent' may not be 'deviant'. For example, it is not uncommon for adolescents to experiment with smoking cigarettes despite the action being illegal for individuals under the age of 18. In this situation, although the behaviour would be classified as delinquent because it violates a law, it would not be classified as deviant

because it does not violate the social norms for this particular age group. Delinquency is an umbrella term which can encompass both deviant behaviour and criminal behaviour committed by those under the age of 18. It usually refers to behaviour that results in punishment by authorities.

Delinquency is defined in the extant literature as a pattern of observable illegal behaviours committed by an individual under the age of 18, including acts that would not be considered against the law if committed by a person older than 18 years (Williams et al., 1998). This definition indicates that delinquency is usually age specific. According to Siegel and Welsh (2012) if a child commits status-offending actions that would not be considered illegal if perpetrated by an adult, such conduct is against the law only because the child is under age. For example, punishment for running away from home, skipping school, and disobeying teachers is applicable only to children.

One of the early studies that defined delinquency was Breckenridge's study (1912). This viewed delinquency as resulting from a macro-level function of society. The definition, cited by Tommovic (1979), is as follows:

‘A condition arising in the matrix of socio personal disorganisation and in the sequence of experience and influences that shape behaviour problems. It is the product of dynamic social process[es], involving numerous variables and the failure of personal and social controls. It is a symptom of deep socioeconomic and social ailment’ (P.45).

According to Siegel and Williams (2003), many expressions have been used in the literature to refer to a young person who comes in to conflict with the law such as ‘juvenile delinquent’, ‘delinquent youth’, and ‘young offender’. In general the definition for such a person will be similar to this form:

‘A youth in a certain age range who has committed an offense which, if committed by an adult, would be a crime’ (P.4)

Although these definitions only loosely explain delinquency they identify the most important elements in such a definition; the significant factors are age and the delinquent acts.

The term ‘delinquency’ however has numerous definitions and meanings beyond this one-sentence definition. Moreover, there are many different criteria with which the term ‘delinquency’ can be further evaluated and more precisely defined. Chief among these are the specific age and gender of the perpetrator and the nature of the offence (Wegener et al., 1989; Chesney-Lind & Pasko, 2004). The following discussion will be based on these criteria, and it will additionally highlight some of the key definitions used by different disciplines to define delinquency.

Age is a major criterion in the definition of delinquency; for example, many nations worldwide consider any offender who is less than 18 years old to be a 'delinquent', while labelling anyone between the ages of 7 and 12 who has committed a delinquent act according to criminal law as a 'child delinquent' (Leve & Chamberlain, 2004). In the United States for example, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) defines a delinquent as:

'Any juvenile who, while less than 16 years of age, but at least six (6) years of age, commits a crime or infraction under State law or under an ordinance of local government, including violation of motor vehicle laws'.

This definition specifies the age at which a delinquent is identified, here limited to between six and sixteen, although the age of criminal responsibility varies from state to state. According to the OJJDP 'juvenile' is defined as:

'Any person who has not reached his/her eighteenth birthday and is not married, emancipated, or a member of the armed forces of the United States. Wherever the term "juvenile" is used with reference to rights and privileges, that term encompasses the attorney for the juvenile as well'.

There are a considerable number of studies that define the term 'delinquent' based on the legal status of the offender. In those studies there is general agreement that 'delinquent' refers to 'a young person who been found to have violated the penal code' (Regoli et al., 2010; Bartol & Bartol, 2008). The only difference in definitions was related to the perpetrator's age, especially because the age of criminal responsibility varies from one state to another as previously mentioned. Gender is also not a simple issue in the definition of delinquency. Young females for example have often been detained for incorrigibility or running away from home, whereas the same behaviour in adolescent boys is ignored or tolerated (Bartol & Bartol, 2008; Chesney-Lind & Pasko, 2004).

The acts which qualify under the category of delinquency constitute a wide range of behaviours including damaging property, truancy, and running away from home. All of these acts and many others have been characterised as delinquent acts, ranging from serious to minor offences (Bartol & Bartol, 2008; Elmer & Reicher, 1995). Several terms have been used to describe young offenders based on the severity of the offences committed, including 'serious offender' which refers to those juveniles who have been involved in one or more serious offenses such as drug trafficking, weapons violations, and firearms regulations as defined by Loeber and Farrington (1999). Similar definitions are provided by the *British Crime Survey* (2003) where serious offenders are defined as 'those committing: theft of a vehicle; burglary; robbery; theft from the person; assault with injury; or the selling of drugs'. Another aspect of the term is the use of 'violent offenders', which refers to a subset of all serious offenders. Loeber and Farrington (1999) distinguish

between violent and non-violent serious offences as follows: “serious violent offenses” include homicide, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, and kidnapping; “serious nonviolent offenses” are burglary, motor vehicle theft, theft over \$100, arson, and drug trafficking.

Definition of delinquency also varies based on the severity and frequency of committing delinquent acts. The term ‘chronic offenders’ is widely used in the literature, but there is less agreement among scholars and lawmakers on how to define juvenile chronic offenders (Loeber & Farrington, 1999). Commonly the literature in this respect loosely describes chronic offenders as a small proportion of delinquents who commit a large proportion of all offenses (Farrington, 1989) and each study generally defines those youths according to elements specific to that study. For example, Shelden and Chesney-Lind (1993) define chronic offenders as those with five or more arrests, while Farrington and West (1993) define them as youths with nine or more convictions. It is clear that studies vary considerably in the cut-off points used to define chronic offenders, whether five or more arrests (Shelden & Chesney-Lind, 1993), self-reported offences, or the number of convictions (Huizinga et al., 1994).

In conclusion the literature presents very broad specifications of the behaviour defined as delinquent. In reality, young people vary in a great many ways in the types of delinquent behaviour in which they engage and in the relative frequency, regularity, and versatility of such behaviour. In other words, there are different patterns of delinquent behaviour and different degrees of involvement in them.

As an aside, it must be mentioned that the term ‘delinquency’ used in the criminological literature is a very broad one. In fact, many of the behaviours included in self-reported surveys are not criminal offences in most countries around the world. Such behaviours include, for example running away from home and skipping school. In this study, the term ‘delinquency’ is used in that broad sense, and it therefore includes all sorts of antisocial or deviant behaviours, even if these behaviours are not defined as an offence under Saudi law.

Given all of these difficulties in explaining delinquency, it is hard to define the term precisely. As the present study is guided by the work of Farrington, in particular the Cambridge study (1961-1981), delinquents will herein be defined as young females aged between 10 and 18 years old who have official convictions or who have admitted delinquents acts as revealed in the self-report surveys which had not been brought to the authorities’ attention.

#### **4.2.2 The extent of female delinquency in International literature**

Literature on juvenile offending, also known as juvenile delinquency, is principally focused on males (Chesney-Lind, 2001). There has been little definitive information produced on the matter that is specifically focused on girls and young women, although there is now a growing body of recent literature. Researchers suggest that the increase in female delinquency is not necessarily due to a significant rise in violent behaviour, but to the re-labelling of girls' conflicts as violent offenses (Chesney-Lind, 2004). Sheehan et al (2007) argue that the observed increases in female imprisonment cannot be attributed to an increase in the severity of female offending but appear instead to reflect more punitive responses by the courts to instances of offending by women.

Before the mid-1960s, most formal discussions of juvenile offenders and the juvenile justice system did not include data on juvenile female offenders. For example, in his 1955 book on gang delinquency, Albert Cohen goes as far as to describe the delinquent as "a rogue male" (Cohen 1955, cited in Chesney-Lind, 1989, P: 6). However, during the 1960s and 1970s there was an increase in female delinquency, causing researchers to notice and begin to track female offending patterns for the first time (Chesney-Lind, 1979, P: 53). The discussion below will focus on female delinquency based on reviews of the relevant literature.

In general, it is difficult to precisely determine the extent of delinquency on a global level. This is due to the variability of ways in which delinquency is measured from country to country, around the world; however, it is clear that delinquency is a major issue. To illustrate this, consider the following quote from the United Nations:

Statistical data indicate that in virtually all parts of the world, with the exception of the United States, rates of youth crime rose in the 1990s. The countries in transition have also witnessed a dramatic rise in delinquency rates; since 1995, juvenile crime levels in many countries in Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States have increased by more than 30 percent. Many of the criminal offences are related to drug abuse and excessive alcohol use.  
(United Nations, 2003, p. 189)

There are three main sources of data that are widely used to measure the extent of delinquency; official statistical data, self-reported surveys, and victimisation surveys (Junger-Tas et al., 1994). Some delinquency studies, based upon official statistics, comprise police or court records that detail the number of young offenders who have come to the attention of authorities (Bartol & Bartol, 2008). However, these suspected or convicted delinquents may, for a variety of reasons, account for only a small proportion of



all offenders. This can be explained by the fact that some youths may be engaged in delinquent behaviour, but may not come to the attention of the police, while others may be known to the police, but are below the age of criminal responsibility, and so their actions are not recorded (Ainsworth, 2001). As Farrington (1986) pointed out, the peak period of officially recorded juvenile offences usually occurs from 14 to 17 years of age.

For these reasons the OJJDP (2000) acknowledged that 'official records should always be viewed as an underestimate of the actual amount of criminal or delinquent behaviour'. The OJJDP states that as long as the researcher is aware of 'the potential pitfalls' of these data and represents them accordingly in the report, official records are a valuable source of evaluation data.

The most cited source for national crime and delinquency statistics in the U.S. is the Uniform Crime Report (UCR), according to the U.S. Justice Department's Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). The UCR provides detailed information on eight crime indexes: homicide, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson (Minor et al., 2007; Siegel & Worrall, 2011). During the early days of the UCR in 1930, fewer than a thousand law enforcement agencies reported their data (Bartol & Bartol, 2008). More recently, after 2002 for example, UCR data collection came from over seventeen thousand (city, county, and state) law enforcement agencies that represented about 95% of the U.S. population (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2010). Data from the UCR (2007) indicated that juvenile crime represents a significant problem in the United States. In 2007, there were over 1.6 million arrests of persons younger than 18 years.

One of the limitations with the UCR, as with other official statistics reporting offences, is generally underestimating the actual extent of delinquency. This is because some of the offences go undetected by law enforcement agencies (known as 'dark figures'), therefore true numbers are difficult to estimate (Siegal & Welsh, 2007). However, data from surveys, such as the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), would help to fill this gap (Ohlin & Tonry, 1989).

In Canada, the first large-scale development study of delinquency was based on police-reported data (Carrington, 2007) which examines the development of delinquency over the childhood and adolescence of two Canadian cohorts who were born in 1987 and 1990. The study found that recorded delinquency is fairly widespread among Canadian teenagers. By their 18th birthday, just under one-fifth of the 1987 birth cohort (one-quarter of boys and one-eighth of girls) had been recorded by police as chargeable in a criminal incident, although not all were formally charged.

When official rates of offending are plotted against age, the rates for both the prevalence and incidence of offending appear highest during adolescence; they peak sharply at around age 17 and drop precipitously in young adulthood (Blumstein and Cohen, 1987; Farrington, 1986). With slight variations, this general relationship between age and delinquency is observed among males and females, for most types of offences, during recent historical periods and in numerous Western nations (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1983). In addition, Smith and McAra (2004) note that girls' delinquency 'peaks' between the ages of 12–14 and falls off by age 15.

The second source of data on juvenile offending is self-reported delinquency. In self-report surveys, juveniles are asked about the extent of their delinquency, and usually these studies focus on offences that were committed during the preceding year, although there is a large volume of published studies that consider lifetime offending along with the aforementioned preceding year (Bartol & Bartol, 2008). It should be mentioned that most of the key studies, which used self-reported delinquency (SRD) and were cited in this review, were concentrated on male samples.

Self-report studies can be traced back to the 1940s and have grown in prominence since then (Pakes, 2010). The first published study, which used the self-report method to measure delinquency, was conducted in the U.S. by Austin Porterfield (1943), who used a self-report survey to assess the extent of delinquency among college students. This study was followed by several more studies conducted all over the world, which used the same self-report technique to investigate the distribution of delinquency.

After the 1960s, self-report was used to address a range of interesting issues such as the relationship between social class and delinquency (e.g., Akers 1964; Clark & Wenninger 1962; Dentler & Monroe 1961; Empey & Erickson, 1966) and it has also been used to examine theoretically predicted correlations of delinquent behaviour (e.g., Hirschi 1969; Kaplan 1972; Akers et al., 1979; Elliott et al., 1985).

Thornberry and Krohn (2000) described the self-report method as one of the most important innovations in criminological research that originated from the twentieth century, and which has certain advantages over official statistical data. For example, self-report surveys make it possible to measure the characteristics of delinquents, and can also provide information about particular forms of anti-social behaviour, in addition to enabling researchers to correlate a variety of characteristics for respondents with their admitted offences that go beyond the perpetrators' socio-demographic characteristics of age and race (Farrington et al., 1994; Krohn et al., 2010).

West and Farrington (1973) believe that offences brought to the attention of the court represent only the 'tip of a large iceberg' of offences committed. Researchers have tried to explore the submerged part of this iceberg by using self-report methods and by trying to persuade young people to reveal their true offence histories. Self-report data from young offenders enhances information based on official records. Studies that use self-report measures have indicated a willingness from young people to report accurate information about committing both minor and serious delinquent acts (Espiritu et al., 2001).

Research has acknowledged that self-reporting of offending may overcome some of the problems associated with official records. However, this method also has limitations. For example, questioning people about their offences, especially serious offences, is much more problematic and inaccurate, as people may not reveal information due to the fear of possible legal consequences (Elliott et al., 1985; Thornberry, 1987).

There are several literatures in self-report delinquency studies, undertaken in the U.S and Europe. The findings from these major studies will be illustrated in this paper, beginning with early studies based on SRD. For example, one of the most respected early studies was undertaken by Elmhorn (1965). The results indicated that 92% of teenage schoolboys, randomly selected in Stockholm, admitted to at least one offence, while 53% admitted to at least one serious offence.

More recently, several self-report studies took place in Europe; the most cited being the Cambridge study (England), which spans a 40-year period (1961-2004). The Cambridge study has provided comprehensive knowledge about the development of delinquency and anti-social behaviour from childhood to adulthood, in addition to identifying the childhood risk factors for offending in later years (West & Farrington, 1973; Farrington, 2002; Regoli et al, 2011).

Generally, the results obtained in the Cambridge Study are similar to those obtained with comparable male samples from the UK (Farrington & Maughan,1999), Sweden (Farrington & Wikström,1994), Finland (Pulkkinen,1988 ), and from other Western industrialised countries (Farrington, 2006). The Cambridge Study is one of the most famous longitudinal surveys which provided precious information about delinquency development. However, it is also has some limitations such as the small sample size which meant it was too small to effectively study rare events, such as sex offenders (Piquero et al., 2012).

In recent years there is a widespread interest in comparative and cross-national research to establish the rate of offending across countries. Pakes (2010) points out that such studies may provide information on the effectiveness of certain measures of offending.

The First International Self-Reported Delinquency Study of 1992 (ISRD-1; Junger-Tas et al., 1994) has explicitly focused on youthful delinquency and victimisation for 13 countries simultaneously (Enzmann et al., 2010). The study found that consistently high proportions of young people across a range of developed countries had committed at least one criminal offence. Another interesting finding was related to the lifetime prevalence of delinquency which was surprisingly similar across the countries. In terms of the delinquent behaviour, peak age was found to be between aged 14 and 18. However, the peak age varied according to the type of offence. For instance, the peak age of vandalism was clearly lower (between 14 and 15 years old) while that of drug use was considerably higher (Junger-Tas et al., 1994; Junger-Tas et al., 2010). In the ISRD-2, some interesting results were presented such as that young people who reported a higher level of offending were also those who report a higher level of victimisation. Theft was the most common form of victimisation.

Another important method of collecting delinquency data is through victimisation surveys, which are widely used as a corrective measure of offending trends (Van Dijk et al., 1992). Victimisation surveys also use the self-report method, but the survey population is the victims rather than the offenders (Bartol & Bartol, 2008).

As many victims do not report their experiences to the police, the UCR for example cannot measure all the annual criminal activity. In order to address the issue of non-reporting, the FBI implemented a new system called the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), a comprehensive, nationwide survey of victimisation in the United States conducted annually by the U.S. Census Bureau for the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS). The NCVS has some advantages over the use of official data. The greatest advantage is that the NCVS can estimate the total amount of annual offences, and not just those that are reported to police (Siegel, 2012).

In Arab countries, several studies have been conducted over the past three or four decades, investigating delinquency and anti-social behaviour among Arab youths (Naser, 1994; El-Douseki, 1993; Hegazy, 1986; Ismail, 1988, Ghanem, 1998). Most of these existing studies have concentrated on measuring the impact of socio-demographic variables in relation to delinquent behaviour (e.g. socioeconomic status, religious backgrounds, family size, and place of residence) using the self-reported method. However, most of these Arabic studies use a small sample which might not be a

representative sample. Other studies were based on old official data which had been collected in the early Nineties and which may not reflect the contemporary situation of existing delinquency, therefore, it would be hard to generalise the findings of these studies.

El-Kadem (1995) for example, studies a small number of delinquents (90 males and females) between the ages of 7 and 18 years old in Qatar. The result showed a 21 percent increase in juvenile delinquency in Qatar between 1976 and 1995. However, there is no data available concerning the number of delinquents in 1976 to compare with the 1995 data, especially as the Census (1997) shows a 5.3 percent annual increase in population between 1976 and 1995.

Maana (1996) examined the occurrence of re-offending between young Algerian females, and found the percentage of female recidivism to be 25 percent. Maana suggested that once the females were detained in the correctional facilities the possibility of re-offending was increased.

In conclusion, several sources of data have been used to measure delinquency, with each approach having certain strengths and weaknesses, as discussed above. Delinquency research, in general, has limitations. First, issues of selection bias when studying institutional populations have led to an increased use of cohort, neighbourhood, school, and community surveys. Many of these studies rely on the self-reporting of delinquency by youths, who may overstate or understate their delinquent behaviour. On the other hand, analyses that rely on arrest data, or on adult observational data, typically understate the frequency of delinquent behaviour. Secondly, most delinquency studies are based on samples of boys, and it is unclear whether the same cases apply equally as well to girls. Much of the literature on girls' delinquency is based on small, non-representative samples, with few longitudinal studies or comparison groups.

While recognising these limitations, it might be difficult to construct an accurate picture of juvenile delinquency; therefore, it would be fair to say that all previous methods provide only an estimate for the extent of youth offenders—not an exact figure. As Muncie (2001) notes, the 'true facts' about youth crime are unknown in principle.

#### **4.2.3 The nature of female delinquency in International literature**

This discussion will focus on the most common types of offences committed by young females, as the interest of this current study is focused on female offenders under 18 years of age.

The patterns of offending behaviour change over time and vary among countries. Therefore, behaviour is evaluated differently based on where and when it occurs. For example, in the oldest written law—the code of Hammurabi—disobeying parents is recognised as an offence, with severe penalties as a consequence. As an example, rule 195 of the code states that 'if a son strikes his father, his hands shall be cut off' (Regoli et al, 2011, p.9). Modern societies in most countries consider disobedience as unacceptable, but do not consider it as an offence. While few countries address disobedience under the status of offence, certain countries, such as Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Bahrain, Japan, and Nigeria, vaguely offer a definition for the punishment of disobedience. However, disobedience does not make the youths criminals under the laws of these countries (Child Rights Information Network, 2009).

The nature of offending also varies from country to country, and within the same country over time, due to changes that occur in the justice system and legislations regarding juvenile matters. Changes to legislation create new criminal offences and redefine others, which makes it difficult to measure trends of offending (Maguire et al, 2007). For example, under the Theft Act of 1986, the definition of burglary, which had previously been restricted to 'breaking and entering' at night, was extended to include 'entering as a trespasser with intent' at any time, while offences such as 'housebreaking' simply disappeared (Maguire & Bennett, 1982, p.8-9). Maguire et al, (2007) suggested that such changes have had a significant impact on apparent trends in the total amount of crime.

Bartol and Bartol (2008) categorise the offences committed by delinquents into five major categories as summarised and defined in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1 Nature of juvenile offending**

<b>Unlawful acts</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Unlawful acts against persons	Violent crimes, such as aggravated assault, robbery, and sexual assault.
Unlawful acts against property	Property crimes, such as burglary, larceny theft, and vandalism.
Drug offenses	Possession, distribution, and / or manufacture of drugs.
Public order offenses	Nuisance crimes against society, such as noise violations.
Status offenses	Acts only juveniles can commit, such as violation of curfew, running away, and school truancy.

**Source: Bartol & Bartol (2008)**

Young offenders, in general, tend to commit certain types of crimes. For example, theft was found to be the most common offence committed by juveniles, as confirmed by official statistics from a range of countries (e.g., Netherlands: Junger-Tas & Block, 1988; Sweden: Wikstrom, 1990, 1990; England and Wales: Home Office, 1996; United States: Snyder et al., 1996)

Females, in particular, are more likely to be arrested for status offences, such as running away from home, skipping school, and alcohol abuse (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006; Chesney-Lind, 2001) According to Snyder and Sickmund (2006), from the total number of juvenile female arrests, 19% were status offenses (running away, and curfew violations), while only 8% of males arrested fell into similar categories. A broadly similar picture is found in FBI records, where females accounted for 59% of arrests carried out for running away from home (Snyder, 2005).

In the United States, according to the UCR (2004), the percentage of arrests occupied by females has tended to rise over the last three decades. The notable increase was in those related to minor property offenses such as larceny; in 1960 the female share of arrestees averaged about 15 percent for property offences and this figure rose to 40 percent for the same offenses in 2004.

On the other hand, evidence from several data sources indicates that the number of females involved in serious offending is relatively low. To illustrate, results from the UCR (2008) show that males account for the vast majority of violent offences, such as homicide, rape, and aggravated assault. Similar results revealed by the NCVS (2005) show that males account for 80-85% of all violent offences identified by victims. However, evidence from the NCVS shows a decrease in the violent offences nowadays compared to recent decades. According to the NCVS, the number of juveniles arrested for murder, rape and aggravated assault is nearly 10 percent lower than the historical average.

The rise in serious delinquency has been especially noteworthy in Europe, where both Eastern and Western European countries have noted sharp increases during the late

1990s. In Africa, Latin America, and various parts of Asia, industrial crimes and non-violent offenses are among those observed in the conviction of youths in these regions. Further still, even prosperous countries in the Arab world are also reporting increased delinquency numbers (Allen et al, 2010). According to data from the Russian Federation, the committing of delinquent acts is most prevalent among 14-year-olds and least prevalent among 17-year-olds. These rates are higher for theft, robbery, and rape, but lower for various other violent offenses (United Nations, 2003).

### **4.3 Female delinquency in Saudi literature**

#### **4.3.1 Defining female delinquency in Saudi literature**

In Saudi Arabia, the concept of delinquency is defined by Islamic law. The sources of this law are the Quran and Sunnah, as discussed earlier in this thesis. Thus, the legal definition of delinquency is drawn from these sources. There are not enough details or even a clear definition of delinquency in Saudi literature; each researcher has developed operational definitions that serve the purpose of their study. However, the common theme between definitions was the element of age. Most studies used the term *delinquent* to refer to young offenders between 12 and 18 years old (Al-Duaij, 2004; Wardak, 2005).

Saudi Arabia has no comprehensive legislation or framework to address the issue of young offenders (Human Rights Watch, 2008). However, Saudi Arabia is a member of the United Nations and has signed several conventions relating to children's rights and how children should be treated if they come into conflict with the law. Saudi Arabia has accepted the United Nations' convention of juvenile justice known as *The Beijing Rules* (1985). This convention set a standard minimum age of criminal responsibility in 1985, and it defines the delinquent or the juvenile offender as 'a child or young person who is alleged to have committed or who has been found to have committed an offence' (United Nations, 1985).

It is emphasised that Saudi authorities should adopt these definitions into their legal system due to the absence of a written penal code that precisely interprets Islamic law. The gap between the international standard and Saudi law remains, as does the debate over how young offenders should be treated. Law enforcement officials, judges, and prosecutors currently have very broad discretion to determine issues such as when to arrest children, how long to detain them, and what punishments to impose on those deemed to have broken the law.



The only significant outcome that Saudi authorities adopted from this convention was the setting of an age of criminal responsibility. In 2006, Saudi Arabia raised the age of criminal responsibility from seven to twelve years old. According to Human Rights Watch (2008), despite setting an age for criminal responsibility, Saudi authorities do not seem to be adequately implementing these rules. Human Rights Watch has documented cases of children as young as thirteen at the time of their offence whom courts have sentenced to death as a consequence of the judges' determination, based on the child's physical development alone, deeming that the child is mature (Human Rights Watch, 2008).

Islamic law provides a broad and comprehensive foundation outlining a robust prohibition of any harmful behaviour. Judges in Saudi Arabia often treat young offenders as adults based on their own judgment of assessing maturity. According to Ismail (2001), reaching the age of maturity and being subject to criminal responsibility is defined by puberty. For males, reaching the age of physical maturation is determined 'by the growth of pubic hair and ejaculation', and for girls 'by starting her menstruation'. Such assessments may not be enough to prove maturity, especially since there are no laws or regulations requiring judges to evaluate the child's mental, emotional, and intellectual maturity when determining to prosecute a child as an adult, as discussed previously.

Some Saudi sociologists have tried to define delinquency from their own perspective. For example, Al-Sadhan (1996:98) tried to make a distinction between delinquency and crime. He defined delinquency 'as committing any act that is prohibited by Islamic law, or involves abandoning or disregarding any act that is required or obligated by Islamic law without legal and lawful Islamic justification'. In contrast, the term 'crime' includes any immoral, irreligious, or illegal act, whether of commission or omission. In this definition, Al-Sadhan does not specify the age of those who may be considered delinquents; nor is there clarification for these immoral acts which may be prohibited by religion. The term *crime* under Shariah (Islamic law) can be defined as an act prohibited by God and punishable either by the fixed punishments (Hudud) or discretionary penalties (Tazzier)<sup>18</sup> (Al-Qaradawi, 2003; Peters, 2005).

Some Saudi researchers such as Issa (1990) and Ramadan (1985) defined delinquency as any behaviour that is not compatible with normal social behaviour. In this definition, delinquency was limited to acts considered unacceptable by cultural norms of society and clarification is necessary for what are normal and non-normal acts.

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<sup>18</sup> Details about these punishments are provided in chapter 2.

In fact, the absence of a clear definition of delinquency is based on the fact that the judicial system uses a broad definition to define delinquency. As a result, such gaps in legislation and regulation may leave children vulnerable to unfair trials, which may violate their fundamental rights.

To summarise, most of the existing research has adopted the definition of delinquency from Western literature which may not fit well with the Saudi context (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Mutlag, 2003). Others have used United Nations definitions (Al-Humouri, 2001; Al-Romaih, 1993). Only a few researchers attempt to introduce their own definition (Issa, 1990; Ramadan, 1985). Other researchers used deviance, delinquency, and crime as interchangeable terms (Al-Qarin, 2005).

#### **4.3.2 The Extent of female delinquency in Saudi literature**

Before discussing the extent of delinquency in Saudi Arabia and how it is measured, it would be useful to have an idea of the reasons behind the limited information about the problem. Some researchers claim that law enforcement agencies may be politically motivated or have other reasons for underreporting delinquency or inflating delinquency statistics (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Mutlag, 2003).

Accurate rates of delinquency in Saudi society are difficult to determine, because of the constraints on reporting and the lack of data (Al-Askah, 2005). There is no national survey in Saudi about the extent of delinquent youth; even in the Census survey there is no data about the rate of delinquency in Saudi society. The Ministry of Social Affairs and the Interior Ministry are the government bodies that are responsible for providing official statistical data about offences and crime prevalence in the country. However, this kind of information is not available to the public, and it may be revealed to researchers only under specific circumstances.

The bureaucracy of the Ministry of Social Affairs can be considered a major obstacle facing researchers, either when they seek the Ministry's permission to get access to samples from correctional institutions or when they request statistical information from the Ministry regarding young offenders (Abdel-Fattah et al., 2004). This was also a limitation faced during this study —access to relevant statistical reports about female delinquency was restricted by authorities. These issues will be discussed in detail in the methodology chapter.

On the other hand, there are only a small number of studies carried out by academic researchers, and most of these studies are based on the police or court records for the cases of delinquents who came in to conflict with the law. Some researchers (Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Humouri, 2001) argue that these kinds of official records may not represent the true figures and may not reflect the real dimensions of the problem. Al-Sadhan (1996) believes that the official number of young delinquents in Saudi Arabia does not indicate or designate an accurate or precisely true figure. However, Al-Sadhan agrees with the official government statements regarding the fact that the prevalence of delinquency in Saudi Arabia is very low compared with other countries.

To support his statement about the low rate of delinquency in Saudi, Al-Sadhan provided statistics reporting the rate of delinquency in 1988, which indicated that the numbers of delinquents who were detained in all correctional institutions in the country was 3,470, with females making up only 11 per cent of the total number of delinquents. It should be mentioned that Al-Sadhan (1996) did not provide information about the numbers of young people in the total population to compare with the number of detained delinquents, and provided no information about the ages of these detained young people.

Other researchers have also supported this point of view, such as Al-Shayge (1992), who claims that delinquency in Saudi society 'is quite limited'. Al-Romaih (1993) compared the rate of delinquency in Saudi Arabia, based on the government's official statistics, with some other Arab countries' statistics on delinquency and concluded that the rate of delinquency in Saudi Arabia, based on the available statistical information, is exceptionally low when compared with neighbouring Arab countries.

In addition, this small number of recorded offences does not necessarily mean that the rate of delinquency is low; rather it may suggest that the problem is underreported, especially in light of the absence of a national survey to investigate the extent of the problem in the general population. Moreover, the low incidence of delinquency might be a result of broad laws that consider some young offenders as adults, according to the judges' determination that the child is mature, based on the child's physical development alone. Therefore, some of these young offenders might be registered in the court records as adults (Human Rights Watch, 2008).

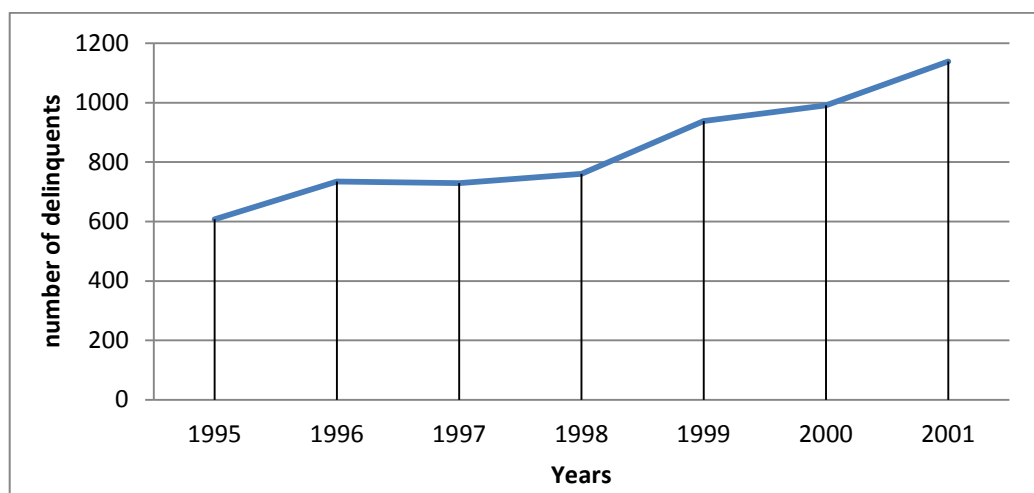
Some Saudi researchers have conducted studies (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Jaafri, 1999; Arafa, 1990; Al-Maliky, 1989) to measure the prevalence of delinquency in the population based on self-reported delinquency. The results suggest that the extent of delinquency in Saudi

Arabia is much higher than recorded rates in many jurisdictions. Al-Muhsin (1995), for example, conducted a study to assess the impact of the family's economic status on delinquency among young males. The author studied 228 boys, 125 of whom were detained in correctional institutions in Al-Madinah city and Jeddah, and 103 of whom were students in public schools in the same cities. The outcome of this study showed that 20 per cent of the student sample had committed some offences that were punishable by law, but they had not been caught by the police or detained.

More recently, specifically from 2000 onwards, researchers' points of view appear to be more precise and critical than before. Where before, most studies seemed to reflect a perfect image of Saudi society, in the last 10 years researchers have discussed several issues regarding delinquency in young people. In particular, they criticised the reliability of the government's official reports regarding the extent of delinquency (Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Sowayan, 2007).

Al-Mutlag (2003) for example, argues that despite the low rate of delinquency in Saudi Arabia, offences committed by young offenders are markedly increasing. He acknowledges that the number of correctional institutions for young delinquents has risen dramatically, from one institution for delinquent boys in 1975 to nine institutions in 1995, as an indication of the increasing of the number of delinquent males. Al-Askah (2005), on the other hand, notes that although the number of delinquent males has been acknowledged by the Ministry of Social Affairs since 1972, the number of female delinquents was kept hidden until 1994. Since 1994, the number of delinquent girls has grown slowly according to the Ministry's statistical report (see Figure 4.1).

**Figure 4.1 The official number of young females and their institutions (between 1995-2001)**



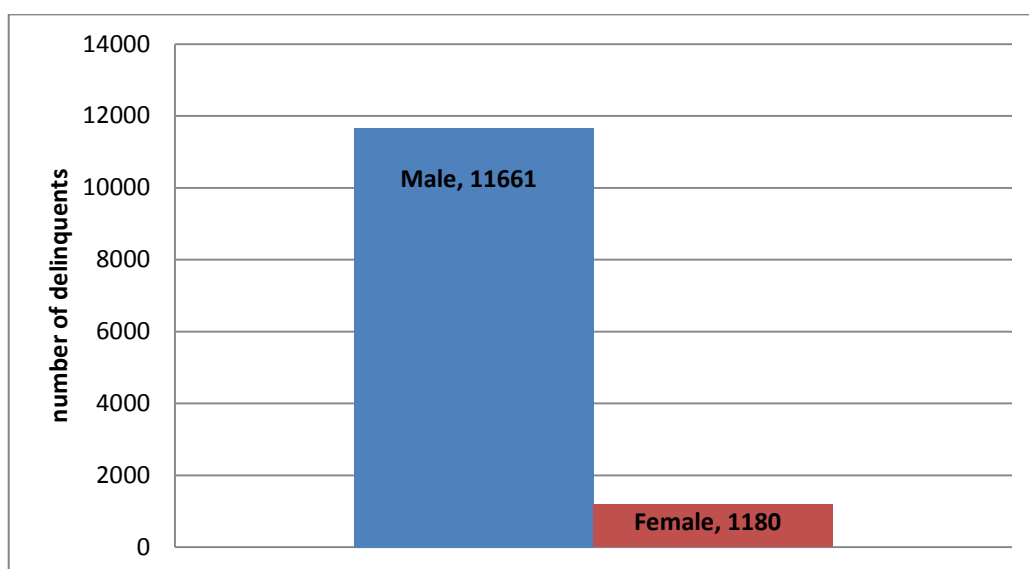
**Source: Al-Askah (2005)**

As indicated in Figure 4.1, in 1995 the number of detained girls was 608. One year later, the number had increased to 735 girls, which showed an increase of more than 15 per cent. In 1997 there was a small decline, with the number decreasing to 729. One year later, this increased slightly to 761. During 1999-2001, the numbers continued to increase slightly.

The available data from the Ministry of Social Affairs concerning the rate of delinquency was not up to date, and it only provides information about the prevalence of the male delinquency between 1972 and 2001 (see Al-Said, 1997; Al-Jibrin, 1994; Al-Roushoud, 2000; Al-Ghadyan, 2001; Al-Mutlag, 2003).

The most recent available data which has been obtained from the Ministry reported the prevalence of young offenders (both male and female) who were detained in all correctional institutions across the country in 2006.

**Figure 4.2 Number of detained males and females in all correctional institutions in 2006**



**Source: Al-Askah (2005)**

The data in Figure 4.2 demonstrates that the number of male delinquents is greater than the number of delinquent females. These data only represent young delinquents who were detained in correctional institutions in 2006. No updated information about the prevalence of delinquency after this point in time is available. It should be mentioned that, in male institutions, the age of delinquents was strictly limited to those under 18 years old, whereas in female institutions the age range is very broad, between 10 and 30 years old. In 2006, the raising of the age of criminal responsibility (from seven to twelve) for boys does not appear to be well publicised or enforced. Regulations governing girls who come

in to conflict with the law do not set any minimum age of criminal responsibility, and that might be the reason behind young females being detained in these institutions (Human Rights Watch, 2008).

Most of the available studies carried out by Saudi researchers have focused on male delinquency in Saudi; very few studies (four studies, to my knowledge) have discussed female delinquency in Saudi society as summarised in the table below (Table 4.2)

**Table 4.2 summarising female delinquency studies in Saudi society**

<b>Author &amp; date</b>	<b>Aims</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Method</b>
Zazoe (2002)	Investigated the extent and nature of female crime in Jeddah city.	N= 180 detained women. Aged 10-35	Self-reported delinquency
Al-Askah (2005)	Explore the socio-economic risk factors in relation to female delinquency.	N= 100 female Aged 10-35	Self-reported delinquency and Interview
Al-Qarni (2005)	Explore lifetime prevalence of deviant behaviour among young females in Makkah city.	N= 350 female students Aged 12-15	Self-reported delinquency
Al-Sowayan (2007)	Explore the cause of female delinquency	N=500 students and 11 delinquents aged 13-30	Self-reported delinquency

Several researchers (Al-Quahtani, 1993; Al-Otaibi, 1990; Al-Mufleh, 1993; Al-Malik, 1990 ) have claimed that the Saudi government has probably carried out some studies about female delinquency, but results were not known and have never been communicated to professionals in the field, such as social workers, psychologists, or criminology researchers. Al-Sowayan (2007) assumes that problems that relate to Saudi female in general are kept concealed and dealt with privately; consequently, the background of delinquent females remains obscure.

The first identified study about female delinquency in Saudi literature was by Zazoe (2002); her study was about the crimes of women in Jeddah City. The sample was drawn from Jeddah prison records in 1999. As the data was collected from prisons, participants were limited to adults aged above 18 years old. However, the results indicated that three percent (n=6) of the total sample (n=182) were aged less than 10 years old. The researcher does not explain the reasons that such young children were detained in prisons for adults, but we may assume that the data was collected before the government set the minimum age of criminal responsibility. In addition, these children may be non-

Saudi, especially since only three per cent (n=6 females) of respondents were Saudi, based on the fact that Saudi authorities often treat foreign children who are begging or lack legal residency as offenders, and usually detain them in prison until they are deported (Human Rights Watch, 2008).

Another study by Al-Qarni (2005) investigated the problem of deviant behaviour in young female students in Makkah City, aged between 12-15 years old, using a self-completed questionnaire. The results indicated that 65 percent of participants (out of 350 females) reported that they have committed one offence at least in the last year, but that it did not come to the attention of the police or their families. It should be added that the findings of this study are important though it is limited as the study was restricted to only three forms of family violence. In addition the way that Al-Qarni measured delinquency might be inaccurate, as all the offences he included in the study can be considered only as anti-social behaviour for example; lying, cheating during exams, yelling at friends, and disrespecting their teachers.

Al-Askah (2005) carried out a comparison study between delinquent and non-delinquent females to identify the socio-economic factors that may be causing delinquency. The sample in this study consisted of 100 females; 50 of them were delinquents 'detained in a correctional institution', and the other 50 were non-delinquents drawn from social clubs in the country. Al-Askah did not provide any information about the rates of delinquency in the control group (young females from social clubs), where she only asked them about their perspectives on the possible causes behind female delinquency in Saudi Arabia.

The most recent study of female delinquency was carried out by Al-Sowayan (2007); the study investigated the causes of female delinquency. Al-Sowayan drew her sample from correctional institutions in Riyadh, in addition to a comparison sample consisting of young female students from the same city. However, the result did not provide any information about the prevalence of delinquency in the school sample. This was the same problem with Al-Askah's study, where no clear indication about the rate of delinquency in the general population sample was given.

The current study sought to explore the lifetime prevalence of female delinquency. Moreover, it will be one of the few Saudi self-reported delinquency studies which assess the extent of the problem in a sample of the general population. The result of the present study will provide better understanding for the actual prevalence of the problem in light of the lack of reliable data from official sources such as the Ministry of social Affairs.

Therefore, the self-reported method has been widely used in international studies and is considered as a reliable and valid measurement tool (Junger-Tas et al., 1994)

In addition the current study aimed to assess the severity of delinquency based on the frequency of reported offences in the most recent 12 month period. The offences measured in the present studies were addressed by a number of western studies, however, none of the previous Saudi studies have examined their occurrence among young females (details of these offences are provided in chapter 5).

In conclusion, without a clear framework and codified penal law, which must explicitly include laws and regulations to address child offenders, it would be hard to assess the problem of delinquency in general and female delinquency in particular. As a result, law enforcement officials, judges, and prosecutors have very broad discretion in determining issues such as when to arrest children, how long to detain them, and what punishments to impose on those deemed to have broken the law.

#### **4.3.3 The nature of female delinquency in Saudi literature**

While certain aspects of juvenile delinquency are universal, others vary from country to country. As a rule, cultural contexts are important in understanding the nature of juvenile delinquency and developing culturally appropriate measures to deal with it (United Nations, 2003). In Saudi Arabia, offences committed by young people can be divided into the following two categories: 1) offences punishable under Saudi law, such as murder, theft, and possession of narcotics; and 2) offenses which are prohibited by the moral code of Saudi society, such as smoking cigarettes.

Although there is no clear classification for offences committed by young offenders, Al-Hazmi (1996) provided a classification for crime in general. He divided crime into seven categories. A summary of the categories and the specific crimes within each category is included below in Table 4.3.



**Table 4.3 Classifications of crimes by category**

<b>Offence classifications</b>	<b>Categories</b>
Violence	Murder, attempted murder, manslaughter, threats of murder, suicide, and attempted suicide.
Theft	All types of crimes against property, such as burglary, theft of livestock, pick-pocketing, and embezzlement.
Drugs	Drug use, drug smuggling, and drug distribution.
Alcohol	Drinking, selling, or making alcohol.
Immorality	All immoral acts, including rape, attempted rape, sexual harassment, homosexuality, attempted homosexuality, abandonment of infants, and prostitution.
Forgery and fraud	Fraud, forgery, and deception.
Miscellaneous	Arson, carrying unlicensed weapons, smuggling, and violations of passport law.

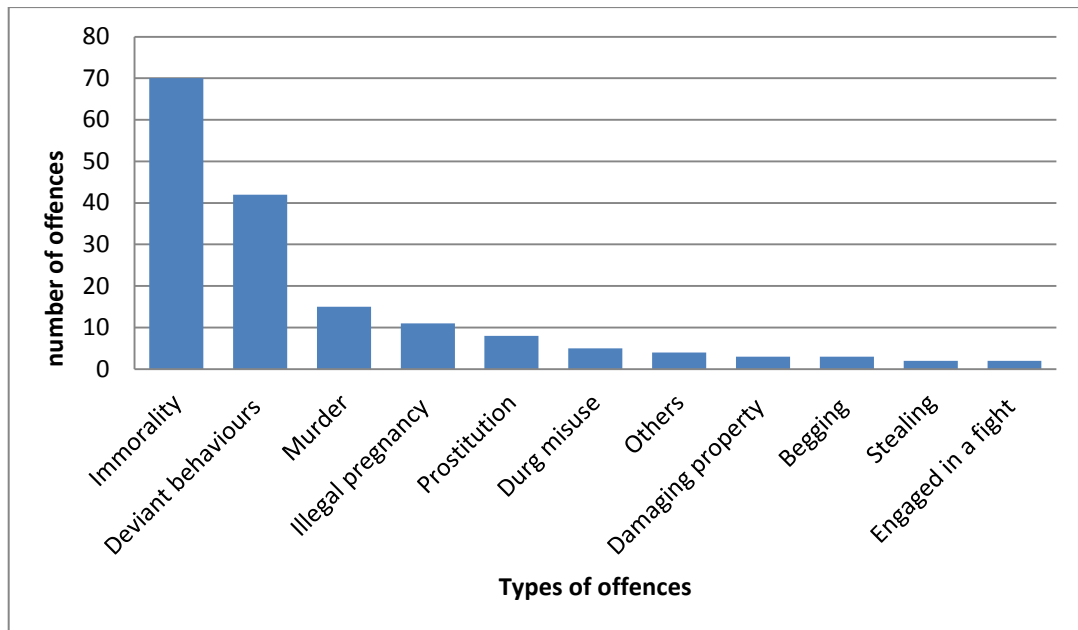
**Source: Al-Hazmi (1996)**

The classification in Table 4.3 indicates all types of crimes which are punishable under Islamic law ('Sharia law'), a legal system which is strictly observed in Saudi Arabia. This classification could be applicable to young delinquents in this country as well, especially in light of the absence of an official interpretation of Sharia Law, a written penal code, or an interpretative text (carrying the force of the law) precisely defining the acts that constitute criminal offenses (Human Rights Watch, 2008). When a juvenile commits one of the offences mentioned in Table 4.3, it is up to the judge to assess the maturity of the offender and decide whether he or she should be punished as an adult.

According to the Ministry of Social Affairs (2006), there are about 14 correctional institutions for young male offenders. In 2006 there were 16,210 male offenders detained in these observation homes; 40% of these offenders were found guilty of theft, 20% were found guilty of crimes of honour and morality, 10% were detained because of street fighting, and only 9% were detained for drug abuse. However, the data describing the types of offences committed by these young offenders only covered 11,661 male offenders. There is no information about the types of offences committed by 39% of the total number of detained males in 2006.

The same problem is evident in the data provided about female offenders, as illustrated in the figure below (Figure 4.3).

**Figure 4.3 Type of offences committed by detained females in all Saudi correctional institutions in 2006**



The data in Figure 4.3 provides information about the types of offences committed by young females detained in Saudi Arabia's correctional institutions in 2006. The figure above is based on the data in Figure 4.2 presented earlier in this chapter.

If one compares the number of offences presented in this figure (165 offences) with the number of females detained in Saudi Arabian correctional institutions in 2006 (1,180 females), there is a clear discrepancy between the number of offences and the number of detained female offenders. This means that the Saudi Ministry of Social Affairs has only disclosed 14% of the offences committed by the detained female offenders.

In addition, the Saudi Ministry of Social Affairs has not provided any details or description for these figures. The data provided thus far is vague and difficult to interpret; for example, it is difficult to interpret what constitutes an 'immoral offence'. Al-Askah (2005), assumed that in the context of female offenders, an 'immoral offence' could include the following types of offences: disobeying one's parents; dating men out of wedlock; or failing to wear full Islamic hijab that covers the body from head to toe. However, this assumption might not necessarily reflect what the Saudi Ministry of Social Affairs means by 'immoral offences'. Furthermore, there are some overlaps between these types of offences (i.e. immorality, prostitution, and illegal pregnancy). Such vague data does not accurately portray the problem of female delinquency in Saudi society, and as a result it is a challenge to assess the nature of this issue.

Some Saudi researchers have conducted studies based on self-reports which attempted to assess the nature of delinquency in Saudi society. However, these studies were based on small sample sizes and were limited to certain areas of the country which may not reflect the diversity of Saudi society; thus the results may not be generalisable.

For example, Al-Mutlag's study (2005) about male delinquents found that the most common type of offence was theft (51% of the total sample), followed by immoral offences (26%) and then drug-related offences (8%). Less than 2% of the detained males included in the study had committed murder. Al-Mutlag mentioned that immoral offences often referred to 'illegal sex'. However, no further clarification was provided. The concept of 'immorality' was commonly used in several studies, including sexual offences such as rape and adultery. The concept of 'illegal sex' could also refer to minor offences, such as dating out of wedlock, which is prohibited in Saudi society. Thus, terms such as 'illegal sex' need to be clarified when used by researchers.

The result of Al-Mutlag's study was consistent with other studies which found that the most common types of deviant behaviour committed by male offenders were theft, alcohol and drug abuse, homosexuality, and assault (Al-Mady, 2000; Al-Sadah, 1994; Al-Qhatani, 2009).

On the other hand, in a study exploring the relationship between different types of domestic violence and deviant behaviour among young female students between the ages of 12–15 years in Makkah city, Al-Qarni found that 65% of the total sample (350 female students) had committed one or more offences in the previous year. However, the offences which Al-Qarni included in his study could be considered as forms of anti-social behaviour (as opposed to deviant behaviour). The most common offences reported in this study were as follows: 1) disrespecting teachers (5%); 2) cheating in exams (5%); 3) disrespecting colleagues (4%); and 4) lying (4%).

Al-Sowayan (2007) conducted a study to investigate the cause of female delinquency in relation to family problems. She collected her data using a self-completion questionnaire at a correctional institution in the city of Riyadh. The results demonstrated that the most common type of delinquency was running away from home (49% of respondents in the surveyed delinquent group reported having committed this offence). On the other hand, only 2.4 % of respondents in the surveyed student group reported running away from home between one and four times. With regard to the student group, no information was provided about the other types of offences the students had committed, nor were any reasons provided explaining why such information was omitted from the study. The most

common types of offences committed by the respondents in the delinquent group were as follows: 1) immorality (28%); 2) theft (3%); and 3) drug abuse (only 0.9%).

In a landmark study of female delinquency, conducted by Al-Askah (2005), 50 female delinquents were interviewed who were detained in four different correctional institutions across the country. The study discussed various types of offences that range from serious crime, such as murder, to minor offences, such as running away from home. Therefore, it would be worthwhile to cite Al-Askah's work and review some of her findings in details, as this may help to understand the nature of female delinquency in the Saudi context.

Al-Askah used a comparison sample in her study which consisted of 50 non-delinquent females who attended social clubs in the same cities where the correctional institutions were located. Al-Askah did not provide any information about the offences which might have been committed by the 50 non-delinquent females. In addition, the information regarding the types of offences committed by the females in the delinquent group was limited since Al-Askah only used ten cases out of the fifteen total cases for her research.

The offences committed by these female delinquents were as follows: 1) three females were detained for running away from home (30%); 2) three females were detained for immorality (30%); two females were detained for drug offences (20%); and 4) two females were detained for murder (20%). Al-Askah provided clarification for all of these types of offences.

Some of these offences seem to be minor, such as the girls who reported running away from home because of family violence. However, instead of accommodating them in a protection centre, these young women were detained in a correctional institution because running away is considered an offence under Saudi law. It should be mentioned that when a male runs away from home it is not considered an offence unless he has committed another offence, such as theft, or if the parents report that he has disobeyed them; in such cases he will be arrested and sent to a correctional facility. This situation indicates unequal legal treatment based on gender. Such inequality is not accepted by Islamic law, which treats men and women equal in terms of duties and punishment (Al-Qaradawi, 2003).

Only two female offenders in the study were detained for murder. One of these offenders reported that she accidentally killed her housekeeper during a fight. Her offence was considered a case of 'manslaughter'. The second woman admitted that she killed her boyfriend after he had blackmailed her. Such kinds of offences are extraordinary in a conservative society like Saudi Arabia. This type of offence is often not disclosed because

it could bring shame to the whole family. It is difficult to assess whether this type of offence is common in Saudi Arabia because the statistics about female delinquency are limited and are unreliable to some extent. It is also problematic to rely on the existing Saudi literature to assess the nature of female delinquency. As Al-Mutlag (2003) noted, most of this literature has either concentrated on praising Saudi society or was designed to serve political aims; thus, such literature is more likely to be misleading and exaggerated.

Immoral offences were the most common type of crime committed in Al-Askah's study. Two out of the three females detained in the institution for immoral offences had committed adultery. Both women were accompanied by their boyfriends when they were arrested, who convinced Saudi authorities that these women had engaged in unlawful sexual relations. One of them was pregnant when she was arrested. According to Haleem et al., adultery ('zina' in Arabic) is 'generally defined by Islamic Law as unlawful sexual intercourse, i.e. intercourse between a man and a woman who are not married to one another. This encompasses extramarital sex and premarital sex' (2003). Having a sexual relationship out of wedlock is considered an offence and the punishment varies depending on the marital status of the person who is found guilty of adultery. For example, if a man or a woman who is convicted of 'zina' is unmarried, then Islamic law prescribes a punishment of 100 lashes in public. However, if the person who is convicted of 'zina' is married, Islamic law prescribes that the offender be stoned to death in public (Al-Qaradawi, 2003).

One of the most interesting cases is that of an 18-year-old Saudi girl who was sexually abused by her father. After he impregnated her, the father accused her cousin of raping his daughter. The girl's uncle reported her pregnancy to the police. The girl was arrested for 'being pregnant without being married', which under Saudi Law is referred to as an 'illegitimate pregnancy', and this is considered an offence in Saudi Arabia. According to Islamic law, this case is not considered adultery; it is either a case of rape or incest. Al-Askah (2005) described the girl in this case as 'a victim, and at no stage could she be said to be responsible for the crime for which she has been punished'.

In conclusion, the conservative culture in Saudi Arabia, which supports the gender segregation of men and women in all aspects of life, has resulted in major gender inequality with regards to how the legal system handles male and female offenders. Many offences committed by females are considered acceptable forms of male behaviour. However, even though Saudi authorities claim they are using Islamic law to govern the

nation, many of the behaviours which are considered offences under Saudi law are not considered offences under Islamic law.

For example, in Saudi Arabia, women are forbidden from driving cars; if a woman does drive a car it is considered an offence. However, there is no fixed punishment for this offence under Saudi Law. According to many Islamic scholars, women are not prohibited from driving a car under Islamic law. Females who have been arrested for driving a car have received different punishments. In one case, a woman was sentenced to ten lashes with a whip (Bloxham, 2011). These case-to-case variations in the definition of offences, and the varied nature and severity of the punishment for such offences, are due to the fact that Saudi Arabia does not have a written penal code. Instead, Saudi Arabia relies on judges' interpretations of the Sharia to determine which actions constitute crimes and what the resultant punishment should be (Human Right Watch, 2008).

#### **4.4 summary**

This chapter has presented an overview of female delinquency recorded in international and Saudi literatures. The discussion has indicated that similarities exist between both, where most of the relevant literature focuses on the delinquency of males rather than their female counterparts. In Saudi Arabia, limited information about female delinquency is available. On the other hand, differences between both of the literatures are also evident; in particular, when measuring and defining delinquency. Differences are also shown in the availability and access of official data about delinquency; data on an international level is widely available and easy to access through official government websites, as opposed to Saudi statistics, which requires the researchers to obtain the official permission in order to access this data.

It is clear from the above discussion that further studies are needed to fill the gap that exists in Saudi literature, with regards to the extent and nature of female delinquency. In addition, there is a need to formulate an understanding about the cause of delinquency, and to identify whether the cause of delinquency in Saudi society varies from that of other countries.

## **CHAPTER 5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **5.1 introduction**

Delinquency is not explained by any single factor but by a combination of factors (Farrington, 1989; Hawkins, 1996). Several studies have suggested that the characteristics of certain family, school, and neighbourhood environments may predispose young people's involvement in delinquent behaviour (Farrington, 1989; Howard & Jenson, 1999; Saner & Ellickson, 1996).

Several theories and perspectives have attempted to explain the association between family violence and delinquency, although the review in this study will be limited to the theories and models which provide explanations for the relationship between exposure to family violence and later offending. It should be noted that, in the present study, the negative behavioural outcomes due to exposure to family violence were limited to four broad categories: violent offences, anti-social behaviour, delinquency, and property offences. The current study will also examine the association between offending and particular risk and protective factors, which will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

### **5.2 A Theoretical perspective on the link between experiencing family violence and negative behavioural outcomes**

The shortcomings of delinquency theories pertaining to girls have been well documented by a variety of feminist scholars in recent decades (e.g., Belknap, 1996; Campbell, 1981; Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 1992; Leonard, 1982; Mann, 1984; Naffine, 1987). These scholars have concluded that existing theories have either neglected girls or attempted to analyse them using theories developed for boys, and they have suggested that more research is needed to develop explanations of female delinquency.

Various theories have been proposed to explain the link between family violence and later offending. The following review will focus on four theoretical perspectives: feminism, social learning, social control, and labelling theories. These theories have been widely used to explain the possible link between these two phenomena. In the current study, these theories will be used as the foundation of the study model.

## **Feminist perspective**

Feminist theory was developed in the 1960s in response to women's inequality as they began expressing dissatisfaction with the traditional roles that confined them (Gullen & Agnew, 2006). From the feminist perspective, the main claim concerning delinquent behaviour is that it cannot be understood without considering gender (Holsinger, 2000). For example, feminist theories emphasise that societal patriarchal structures and gender-based inequalities of power are at the root of female delinquency (Gullen & Agnew, 2006). Based on this perspective, the feminist approach could be potentially valuable for understanding female delinquency in Saudi society, which is characterised by kin-based, patrilineal extended families; male domination; the preference for sons over daughters; and restrictive codes of behaviour for women. According to Daly and Chesney-Lind (1988), the traditional structure of patriarchy, in which men dominate women, is as important as social class in understanding women's offending.

When the feminist approach has been used to explain female delinquency, feminist theory has taken a leading role in underscoring the important influence of past victimisation on the lives of offenders (Belknap & Holsinger, 2006). The feminist pathway's approach to understanding the cause of female delinquent behaviour emphasises childhood abuse as a significant risk factor for subsequent delinquency (Belknap & Holsinger 2006). Numerous studies have been conducted on the impact of childhood abuse and neglect on later offending (Chesney-Lind, 1989; McClellan et al., 1997; Dembo et al., 1992). For example, Chesney-Lind and Rodrigues (1983) carried out a study examining childhood victimisation and female acts of delinquency. They conducted intensive interviews with 16 incarcerated women. Half of the participants reported having been raped as children, and 63% had experienced some form of child sexual abuse with a pattern of multiple victimisations.

Another early research linking female childhood victimisation with later offending is Widom's (1989) study, which compared the juvenile and adult records of abused and non-abused children. It was found that girls who were abused and neglected were significantly more likely than their non-abused, non-neglected counterparts to have both a formal juvenile delinquency record and a formal adult criminal record. However, the abused and neglected girls were no more likely than the non-abused, non-neglected girls to have a record for violent crimes.



### **Social learning theory**

Most studies that use social learning theory to explain how children from violent families learn aggressive tactics focus only on the physical violence against the mother as a form of family violence (Ronan et al., 2009). Social learning theory suggests that children look to their parents as significant role models. Some children who witness family violence grow up to believe that it is an appropriate way to resolve conflict in human relationships. Other children, by contrast, may learn that the only way to coexist with others is to be a victim, blame oneself, or to give up in the face of difficulty (Holden et al., 1998).

Akers (1997) is one of the original proponents of social learning theory. The main focus of Akers' perspective is to explain delinquent behaviour according to learning mechanisms. He claimed that the theory offers an explanation of deviant behaviour through variables that operate both to motivate and control deviant behaviour, and which promote or undermine conformity. The possibility of becoming a criminal or conforming to social norms depends on which variables have the most influence. These variables are all generated as a result of each individual's learning history, and the learning of delinquent acts takes place through a specific sequence of events, starting with differential association with others who have a favourable definition of criminal acts. They provide an ideal type of criminal behaviour to be imitated, and reinforcement might encourage the individual to carry out criminal behaviours (Akers, 1992).

Akers' social learning theory has been subjected to extensive empirical testing. A recent meta-analysis of more than 140 studies revealed consistent support for the theory (Pratt et al., 2006). Therefore, social learning theory would be useful for explaining the problem of family violence in Saudi society as a risk factor of female delinquency, especially because Saudi families are dominated by men who control all aspects of women's lives.

### **Social control theory**

This theory considers why, despite numerous reported cases of family violence and child maltreatment, only a small minority of adolescents and adults become offenders. The major assumption of this theory is that everyone has a predisposition to commit delinquent acts but that this is especially the case for people who experience a lack of intimate relationships with their parents, friends, relatives, teachers, and peers, and who lack the aspirations and moral beliefs that would link them to a normal social life. According to Hirschi (1972), delinquent acts could be the result of a weakened bond between an individual and the society.

Hirschi's (1969) work is often quoted in this respect. He identified four factors that promote social bonds and conformity to the prevailing moral codes. The first factor is attachment; the individual develops a strong attachment to their parents, community, and non-delinquent peers. The second social bond is commitment, which implies that the individual has adequate motivation to achieve legitimate goals and sees them as realisable and rewarding. The third bond, involvement, concerns the degrees of social participation in normal society within institutions (for example, religious organisations) that promote moral behaviour. The final bond, beliefs, implies that the individual knows what society's moral values are, respects those values, and understands that criminals are likely to be caught and punished appropriately.

When applied to delinquency, the theory posits that the odds of delinquent behaviour are low when young people are emotionally bonded to others (attachment), are committed to conventional goals (commitment), accept laws as morally binding (belief), and are occupied with conventional activities (involvement). While most of these factors had been proposed in earlier theories, Hirschi's elaboration received considerable attention because he identified crucial differences between this perspective and both strain and cultural deviance theories (Agnew, 1985; Wiatrowski et al., 1981). Moreover, using self-report survey data, he presented empirical tests that were relevant to his view of those distinctions.

Social control theory could be particularly relevant when explaining delinquency in Saudi society because this theory includes disruption of family socialisation as a factor, which is disengaged from traditional moral codes through young people. It is pertinent to enquire whether young women in Saudi society who have been identified as delinquent have become detached from traditional cultural and religious values.

### **Labelling theory**

Developed in the 1960s, labelling theory derives its concept and major elements from symbolic interactionism, which is based on the belief that delinquent behaviour is learned through interaction with others and that people pass on deviant expectations through their social groups (Thornberry, 2004). According to LaRossa and Reitzes (1993), the symbolic interaction perspective is based on how humans develop a complex set of symbols that give meaning to the world. Symbolic interactionism and labelling theory share the same assumptions about social order and human nature. They are based on the assumption that human nature is relatively flexible and subject to change. In this sense, offending is not the result of a set of characteristics of individuals or groups, but rather a process of

interaction between the delinquent and non-delinquent (Abbott et al., 2005; Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990).

Labelling theory assumes that social order is mainly characterised by cultural conflicts, which are usually resolved in favour of people in positions of power. In this sense, the imposition of social rules reflects the interests of powerful groups (Bernburg et al., 2006; Edwin, 1983). In other words, some people become offenders because they are influenced by the way in which other people react to them. People who are repeatedly punished for bad behaviour may eventually accept the idea that they are bad, and their subsequent behaviour will be consistent with this idea (Barlow & Kauzlarich, 2010).

Labelling theory is potentially valuable for understanding female delinquency in Saudi society, where women become delinquent not because of 'inherent delinquent characteristics' or 'their behaviour or predisposition to crime' but because they are labelled as delinquent by someone in a position of power (Empey et al., 1999). Saudi society is traditional and has powerful informal social control. Social agencies, such as schools, local communities, and the family unit, are in positions of power to label an individual.

### **5.2.1 Previous studies exploring the link between family violence and female delinquency**

There are a few researchers (Maschi, 2006; Mersky & Reynolds, 2007; Widom & Maxfield, 1996; Zingraff et al. 1993) who have begun to examine the relationship between type of family violence and type of delinquent acts. As different types of family violence often co-occur (Falshaw et al., 1996; Haapasalo & Pokela, 1999; Trickett & McBride-Chang, 1995), it is difficult, if not impossible, to isolate types of abuse in order to understand how they individually relate to different types of delinquent offences.

Therefore, the results of past research in this area vary from a minimal connection between abuse type and delinquency type (Zingraff et al., 1993) to a more substantial connection (Maschi, 2006; Widom & Maxfield, 1996). Family violence in general has been found to lead to increased levels of status offenses such as underage drinking, skipping schools (Zingraff et al., 1993), and violent crime (Mersky & Reynolds, 2007).

Different types of family violence may lead to specific types of offending. For example, in terms of physical abuse, previous researches have yielded somewhat conflicting results. Some researchers have found that children who suffer from physical abuse are significantly more likely than control subjects to commit violent offences (Mersky &

Reynolds, 2007; Widom & Maxfield, 1996). However, other researchers have found that abused children are less likely than their non-abused siblings and peers to commit later aggressive offenses (Gutierrez & Reich, 1981). Subsequent work has shown that the significant correlation between physical abuse and later violent offences was rendered insignificant when the frequency of maltreatment was added to the statistical analysis (Zingraff et al., 1993). In Widom's well-known longitudinal studies, abused children were not found to be more likely to commit property offences, however, children who suffered from both abuse and neglect were significantly more likely than control subjects to be arrested for this type of offence (Widom & Ames, 1994). Surprisingly, physically abused children were found to be more likely than sexually abused and neglected children to commit sex crimes (Widom & Ames, 1994).

Sexual abuse has been found to decrease a child's chances of being arrested for a property offense (Maschi, 2006) and to have no relationship with later violent offences (Maschi, 2006; Widom & Maxfield, 2006). Sexually abused children go on to commit the lowest number of violent crimes (Widom, 1989; Widom & Maxfield, 1996). However, in another study, sexually abused children committed more status offenses compared to other abused children (Zingraff et al., 1993). A statistically significant proportion of sexually offending youth reported being victims of sexual abuse (Burton, 2008; Burton et al., 2002) indicating that sexual abuse is more likely than other types of abuse to relate to later sexual offending. However, Widom and Ames (1994) found that sexually abused and neglected children were equally likely to become sexually offending delinquents.

Neglect has a surprisingly significant impact upon its victims (Widom & Maxfield, 1996), but researches still disagree about its precise effects. Researchers found that there was no significant difference between abused and neglected children in their rates of later violent and non-violent crime (Mersky & Reynolds, 2007; Widom & Maxfield). That is, abused and neglected children are equally likely to commit violent and non-violent crimes. However, Zingraff et al. (1993) found that the significant increase in the likelihood of arrest for violent offences, property offences, and status offences due to neglect, was rendered insignificant when the frequency of maltreatment was introduced in to the statistical analysis.

The aforementioned researchers have begun to examine the link between abuse type and types of delinquent act with some conflicting results. Overall, childhood and adolescent abuse appears to increase the likelihood that an individual will become a juvenile delinquent (Maschi et al., 2008; Mersky & Reynolds, 2007; Stewart et al., 2008; Zingraff et al., 1993), but according to Zingraff et al. (1993) this connection is much weaker than

previously supposed. According to some researchers (Mersky & Reynolds, 2007; Widom & Maxfield, 2006), abuse and neglect are equally powerful in predicting delinquent violent and non-violent offending. The combination of abuse and neglect together increases the likelihood of property offences (Widom & Ames, 1994). In contrast, after repeated analysis, other researchers (Zingraff et al., 1993) have rendered the connection between abuse and neglect, and violent and non-violent crimes insignificant. Sexual abuse seems to be related to delinquent and adult sexual offenses only (Burton, 2008; Burton et al., 2002; Widom & Ames, 1994), but sexual abuse may have just as much influence on later sexual offending as does neglect (Widom & Ames, 1994).

### **5.3 Theoretical perspective on the link between risk and protective factors, and negative behavioural outcomes**

Different theoretical models have been suggested to explain the relationship between risk and protective factors, and offending. Researchers have concluded that there is no single path to delinquency and note that the presence of several risk factors often increases a youth's chances of offending (Case & Haines, 2013). Studies also point to the interaction of risk factors, the multiplicative effect when several risk factors are present, and how certain protective factors may work to offset risk factors (Angew, 2005; Chung & Steinberg, 2006).

In recent years, researchers in the field of criminology have adopted an approach from the public health arena in an attempt to understand the risk factors that may lead to delinquency, and the possible protective factors which may mediate the risk of offending in order to work toward its prevention (Farrington, 2000; Moore, 1995). Farrington (2000) calls this recent movement toward the public health model the 'risk factor paradigm', the basic idea of which is to 'identify the key risk factors for offending and tool prevention methods designed to counteract them'.

A risk and protective approach is consistent with the public health model of disease and prevention. For example, looking at heart disease, children whose parents suffer from heart disease are more likely to develop it themselves; however, exercise can buffer the correlation between family history and heart disease as well as decreasing the likelihood of heart disease without considering family history (Regoli et al., 2014; Hess et al., 2013). Similarly, if a youth possesses certain risk factors, research indicates that these factors will increase his or her chance of becoming a delinquent. A risk assessment may aid in

determining the type of intervention that will best suit the youth's needs and decrease his or her risk of offending.

Over the last two decades researchers have identified numerous risk factors that correlate with or are predictive of delinquency (Loeber & Farrington, 2012). The most common classifications of risk and protective factors comprise five domains: individual, family, school, peer group, and community. A number of empirical studies that review risk factors for young females' offending have been carried out (Hoyt & Scherer 1998; Hubbard & Pratt 2002; Simourd & Andrews 1994). These studies have generated evidence of individual-level risk factors such as having an antisocial personality, low intelligence, substance abuse, physical or sexual abuse, mental health problems, onset of puberty, and low levels of self-worth. In the family domain, important risk factors are the quality of parent-child relationships, conflicts within the family, parental control, family violence, and having caregivers with a history of substance abuse or delinquency. Mixed results were found for single parenthood and school achievement. Delinquent friends, gang membership, and the quality of peer relationships were found to increase female delinquency. However, almost all of these studies were carried out in the US. It is questionable whether risk factors found for US females can be generalised to Saudi females, due to the cultural differences between these two populations.

Large numbers of Western studies have been carried out to investigate the risk factors that might put young people at risk of becoming delinquent. A number of factors have been highlighted such as parental monitoring, physical abuse and neglect, having delinquent friends, and low school achievement (Loeber 1990; Thornberry & Krohn 2003). However, such risk factors have been identified predominantly for males. Much less is known about young female offending and its aetiology.

The discussion in this chapter was limited to family violence as a major risk factor of female delinquency, along with a set of risk factors as follows: parents' mental problems, family criminal history, family alcohol and drugs misuse, inability to discuss problems with parents, and family lack of love towards their daughter. Protective factors in the present study were as follows: family recreational activities, mother's encouragement to pray, mother asked about school performance, and father rewards the daughter if she is doing well at school. These factors were rarely studied in the Saudi context, in particular in relation to female delinquency.

Family risk factors have been suggested to be one of the strongest predictors for delinquency. Family characteristics such as poor parenting skills, family size, conflict at

home, child maltreatment, and antisocial parents are risk factors that are linked to delinquency (Derzon & Lipsey, 2000; Wasserman & Seracini, 2001). McCord's (1979) study of 250 boys found that among boys aged 10, the strongest predictors of later convictions for violent offences (up to age 45 years) were poor parental supervision, parental conflict, and parental aggression, including harsh discipline. Some research has linked being raised in a single-parent family with increased delinquency (McCord et al., 2001)

## **5.4 Saudi context**

Saudi studies related to family violence and delinquency have primarily used Western theories to explain these problems but without any consideration of the cultural differences which may make them inapplicable to Saudi society. Several studies that investigated male delinquency relied primarily on social control theory to explain offending (Al-Jibrin, 1994; Al-Malik, 1990; Al-Qahtani, 2009). They concluded that a weak bond, between the juvenile and his or her family and community, was one of the fundamental factors causing his or her engagement in delinquent behaviour, which is in line with the tenets of social control theory. However, they suggested that an integrative approach should be considered to provide an explanation for delinquent behaviour.

In most Arab countries, and Saudi Arabia in particular, religion is one of the most important aspects of life. Some researchers have sought to explain offending from an Islamic point of view, and one scholar has suggested a new version of social control theory. Ghanem (1994) proposed 'religious control theory' as an Islamic explanation for delinquent behaviour. The theory posits that each individual has within him or her 'a religious officer' or 'religious controller' who controls his or her behaviour. An individual may commit an offence when this officer is weak or disrupted.

Ghanem pointed out that people's strengths differ in regard to their religious control over their behaviour. Various factors, such as the individual's social and family environment, the education system, and his or her personal characteristics, influence the strength of their religious controller. Based on his interpretation of offending using religious control theory, Ghanem emphasised that the factors identified by social scientists as being connected to criminal offences—such as being associated with delinquent peers, having a low family income, and having a criminal history in the family—are not the direct causes of criminal acts. Rather, they have a negative impact on the religious officer and reduce its

influence on the individual's behaviour. According to this theory, the disruption or absence of the religious officer is the only factor that is common to all perpetrators of crimes, regardless of the type of offences committed or the personal characteristics of the perpetrator. This theory has never been used in Saudi studies. It might, however, be useful in explaining delinquency in regions where religious beliefs play a significant role in sculpting social behaviour in Saudi society.

In the Saudi context, two major aspects should be considered when attempting to provide an explanation for the link between family violence and female offending: the patriarchal system and the significance attributed to honour and shame. These factors have also been highlighted in the Western theories which were reviewed earlier in this chapter. However, they need to be discussed within the Saudi context. These points have never been addressed within the Saudi literature because most of the existing Saudi studies are limited to male delinquency. The few studies related to female offending have adopted the Western theories without taking in to account the cultural considerations related to the women's arena in Saudi society, which may have an influence on female behaviour. A discussion of such issues would help to develop a better understanding of the problem under investigation.

### **Patriarchal system (guardianship)**

Most existing theories have been developed to explain male delinquency. Therefore, less attention has been paid to an exploration of the role of patriarchal arrangements in the generation of female delinquency, which makes most delinquency theories inadequate for the task of explaining female offending (Chesney-Lind, 2007). According to Chesney-Lind and Shelden (1992), 'to explain delinquency among girls it is necessary to begin considering the importance of gender stratification in a patriarchal society, especially because it is so important in shaping the daily lives of boys and girls' (p. 98).

The impact of the patriarchal system on the shaping of women's behaviour can be understood from the perspective of feminism. There is widespread agreement in feminist literature that women are 'oppressed' and that the patriarchal structure of society perpetuates women's oppression. However, the sources of this oppression and how it might be ended are in dispute (Dominelli, 2002; Roberts et al., 2000). Radical feminism suggests that a female's offending behaviour results from women's oppressed position in



a patriarchal society (Gelsthorpe, 2010). Radical feminism contends that female delinquency is largely due to their victimisation and abuse within a society in which masculine power and privilege prevail (Chesney-Lind, 2006).

This explanation of female offending - as a result of the patriarchal system - can be applied to the Saudi context. In Saudi Arabia and some other Arab countries, the patriarchal system is dominant; the father is the figurehead who has power and control over the entire family. This is a reflection of the cultural and religious values that permeate the society as a whole (Helen, 1992).

The only factor that differentiates Saudi society from other Arab countries in terms of the patriarchal system is that it has been supported and promoted by the Saudi government. In fact, cultural assumptions and customs have often been legitimately introduced into the Islamic legal system (Moghissi, 2005). According to the 'guardianship system' in Saudi Arabia, men are given legal authority over women's lives. A Saudi women's rights activist, Wajeha Al-Huwaidar, stated in an interview that,

The ownership of a woman is passed from one man to another. Ownership of the woman is passed from the father or the brother to another man, the husband. The woman is merely a piece of merchandise, which is passed over to someone else—her guardian. How do you recognize a maid or a slave? The decision making is out of her hands. All the decisions are made by the master. Women today are not allowed to make any kind of decision—not about marriage, work, studies, medical treatment, leaving the house, or traveling.  
(Memri, 2007)

In the above quote, Al-Huwaidar refers to guardianship as 'an ownership', and she described the basic elements of male guardianship in Saudi Arabia, where a woman is required to have her guardian's consent to practise her daily routine, such as leaving home, going to university, or even seeking medical treatment. The male guardian can be defined in simple terms as 'the person who acts on behalf of a minor or any person not qualified to act in legal matters on his or her own behalf' (Human Rights Watch, 2008: P35). This kind of practice increases the amount of pressure on women's lives in such a conservative culture where any acts that do not conform with the acceptable norms for women can be considered acts of delinquency.

According to Al-Mady (2000), many countries that claim to follow Islamic law have often used religion to justify laws that are in fact based on social custom. This is the case in Saudi Arabia, where the government tries to justify male guardianship based on Islamic law and always refers to the following Quranic verse: 'Men are in charge of women by right of what Allah has given one over the other and what they spend from their wealth...'

(Quran- Al-Nisa-34). This demonstrates a misinterpretation of the Quran; many Islamic scholars have asserted that this particular verse referring to men's responsibility over women is based on a guardian's financial responsibility or obligation towards his female relatives (Al-Qaradawi, 2003). It should be noted that the way in which the Quranic framework is carried out in practice is largely determined by cultural factors and differs from society to society.

Wadud (1999) argued that the Quran is neutral towards 'social patriarchy', although she did not clarify what she meant by this term. In fact, Wadud's work helps to establish the Quran's anti-patriarchal episteme by showing that it does not privilege males based on their gender, does not use males as a paradigm to define women, and does not even use the concept of gender to 'speak about humans'.

The government's practice of male guardianship can be considered a violation, not only of international law but also of elements of the Islamic legal tradition that supports equality between men and women. Saudi Arabia is obliged to follow the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (2001); however, the government's commitment is doubted by the international community. It also indicates the ignorance of the Islamic legal tradition that supports equality between males and females. The chosen interpretation of the Quran is restrictive rather than progressive and fails to consider the needs of a modernising society.

As a result of the practice of the guardianship system, women have in many cases been subject to family violence and abuse at the hands of their guardians. According to the 2008 Human Rights Watch report, the imposition of male guardianship on women makes it nearly impossible for victims of family violence to independently seek protection or obtain legal redress. Police frequently require women and girls to obtain their guardian's permission to file a criminal complaint, even when the complaint is against the guardian.

The practice of guardianship in Saudi Arabia is potentially useful in explaining family violence and female delinquency. In Saudi Arabia, women have limited options for employment, access to justice, access to transportation, and the ability to act as independent entrepreneurs. They are under the legal control of their closest male relatives and often lack choices regarding fundamental life decisions, such as marriage, childbearing, and whether to work outside of the home. Together, these factors significantly affect women's daily lives and put them under pressure, which might lead them to adopt 'coping strategies' such as suicide or running away from home. Committing

such acts may cause the community to label the female offender as a delinquent, which in turn has an unfavourable effect on the family's reputation.

As several Saudi scholars have highlighted (Al-Askah,2005;Al-Jaffri,1999;Al-Otaibi,1990), Saudi society is very traditional, and many families still hold on to their traditional values. Al-Mutlag (2003) argued that the conflict between the traditional social life and the urbanised way of life may affect young people's physiological well-being. When youths attempt to adopt modern lifestyles, they come in to conflict with their families and society, which remain traditional to some degree.

### **Honour and shame**

Honour and shame are two further concepts that influence Saudi culture. They have remained important for many years and correlate with each other. Honour is about personal reputation, respect, and the values that individuals are to uphold, which are acknowledged by others in the society. If the honour of an individual is tarnished, the individual and their family will both be shamed. Factors that can lead to feelings of shame include (but are not limited to): meanness, mistreating older or weaker people, being passed over for special favours, and immoral sexual conduct of a female family member. Family's honour, particularly the male family members' honour, is always linked to the purity and virtue of the women in their family. For example women who have been victims of rape are considered as "violated" either by choice or by force, with the family's honour seemingly stripped from them. It is not so much about the concern over the woman but over the honour of the men. Due to this engrained belief, women who are already victimised are sometimes victimised further by their own family members. Clear understanding of these concepts assists in the comprehension and appreciation of Saudi behaviours.

Honour has been used as a rationale for control of and violence against women in much of the world. Women in traditional societies that demonstrate patriarchy tend to conform their behaviour to the "honour" codes of conduct as a means of self-preservation. To avoid punishment, even death, they submit to codes of modesty that require them to wear a veil, live in restrictive or segregated quarters, and submit to male control. According to Baker et al. (1999), submitting to male control can even include submissiveness to the husband's mother. Submissiveness in these cultures is considered equivalent to sexual purity.

Females in Saudi society may live in fear for their family reputation, as according to Al-Mutlag (2003) the psychological well-being of young people is negatively affected by their

worry about the families reputation within the traditional community, which judges the behaviour of every member of each family and then labels them as 'good' or 'bad'.

The 'Shame culture' was widely practiced before Islam in the Arabian Peninsula, where they used to bury the female child alive to prevent the shame which she might have brought to the family when she grew up. Islam however prohibits this act and asserts that children have a right to life.

'And do not kill your children out of fear of poverty; we shall provide for them and for you. Truly, the killing of them is a great sin'  
(Quran- Al-Isra -31).

The practice of honour and shame culture in Saudi society provides an explanation for the low number of reported cases of family violence in Saudi Arabia. Several organisations and researchers argue that the problem is underestimated and the available official figures do not reflect the actual numbers. The 'shame culture' most likely prevents people from reporting the problem.

In patriarchal societies, any discussion of women's shame is not important because shame is only considered in the context of how females' misbehaviour could cause males and their family shame. Many women may stay in abusive relationships because they are ashamed to tell anyone what is happening, or they may feel the abuse is their fault and might feel ashamed. Historically, women have been seen as the property of men and this fact continues to result in harsh punishment for females who step beyond the bounds of patriarchy (Chesney-Lind, 1986). Indeed, men have been able to gain social control over women by labelling them as deviant (Schur, 1984).

The same is true regarding female delinquency, where any deviance from expected female norms can bring shame to the family. Females in Saudi Arabia may not fully understand the boundaries that their family and community set for them and that may lead them to not meet the expectations of family or society and eventually they will be labelled as a delinquent. In addition females may challenge some of these boundaries such as by driving cars. As Al-Askah (2005) noted, the new generation of young Saudi females wants more freedom which the society is not ready yet to accept. In conclusion, female delinquency in Saudi Arabia cannot be understood without considering the socio-cultural context of women in Saudi society.

## 5.5 Development of the study conceptual model

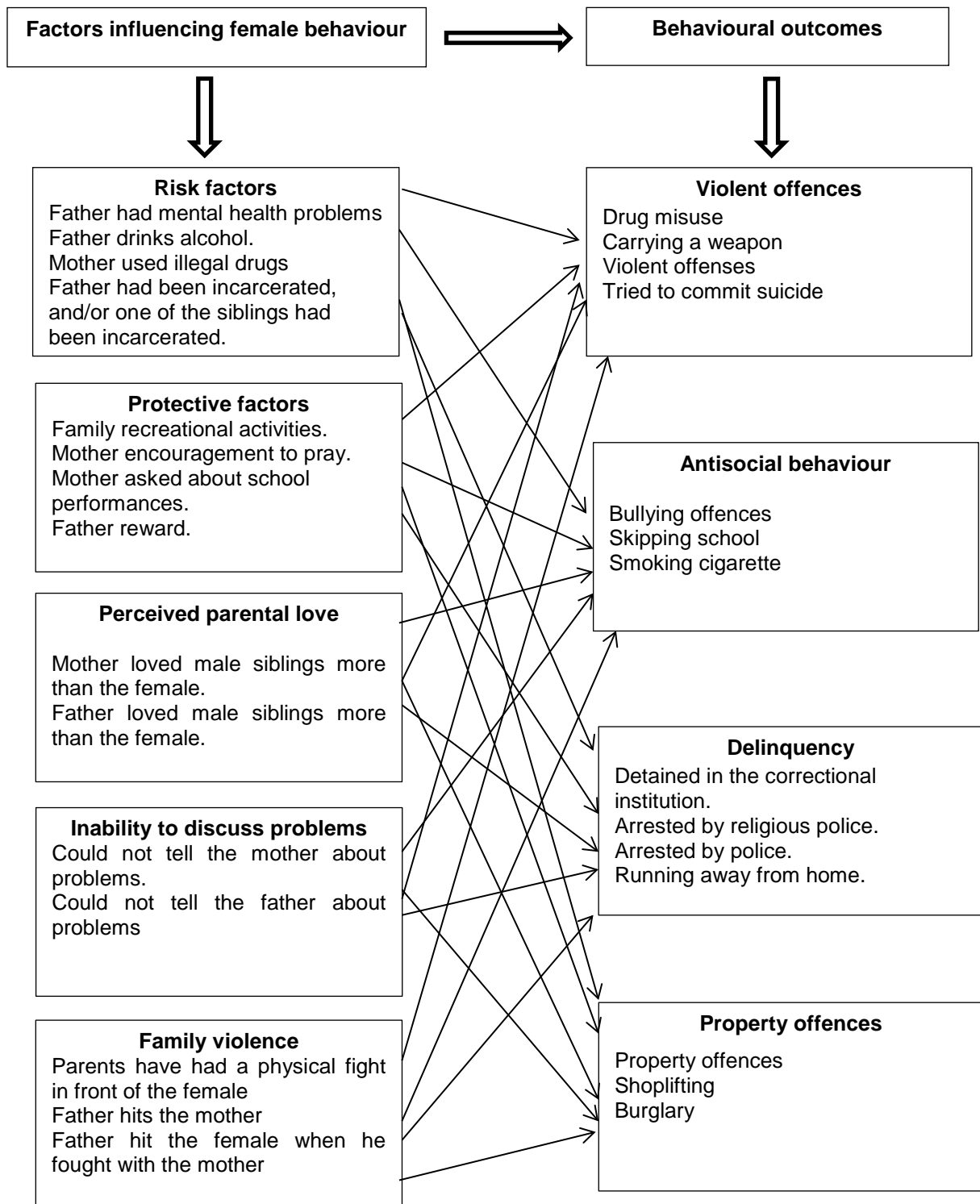
From the above discussion, it can be noted that each theory provides a logical explanation of its proposed determinants of family violence and delinquency, and each has some empirical support. However, no one theory has emerged as having unequivocal support. Instead, there is the need for an integrative approach that incorporates aspects of each. This is due to the fact that human behaviour is a complex phenomenon and there are no quick and easy ways to explain it.

To challenge the historical frameworks which have been used to shape delinquency theory, the current study aimed to establish a conceptual framework for female offending that considers family-related factors that contribute to delinquent behaviour in young Saudi females. Hence, the main purpose of the following study is to explore the relationship between family violence and negative behavioural outcomes among females. The study framework is built upon five bodies of scholarship: (a) feminist explanations of delinquency; (b) social learning theory; (c) social control theory; (d) labelling theory; and (e) conflict theory. In addition, the Saudi perspective related to female offending was also considered.

It should be noted that most theories have been developed by either European or American scholars and may be relevant only for the cultures in which they originated. However, many Saudi researchers, sociologists, and criminologists have researched, analysed, and applied Western theories to the Saudi Arabian context (Al-Askah, 2005). The current study reviewed relevant previous empirical studies and theories and, based on this review, a conceptual model of female offending (Figure 5.1) was developed to achieve the following aims:

1. To examine the risks and protective factors that might be associated with the likelihood of young women developing behavioural problems.
2. To establish a latent profile of family violence (risk groups).
3. To assess the association between class membership of particular risk groups and the following variables: violent offences, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, parental mental health problems, father's alcohol abuse, and relationship with mother and father.

**Figure 5.1 A conceptual model for understanding the link between family violence, risk and protective factors, and negative behavioural outcome.**



In Figure 5.1 above, the factors influencing female behaviour were limited to family-related factors because the main concern of the current study was to examine the link between family violence and female delinquency. The theoretical model sought to examine any correlations among two main groups of variables: the predictors are referred to as 'factors influencing female behaviour' and the outcome factors are referred to as 'the behavioural outcomes'. The model examined the associations between five groups of variables, which were identified as follows: risk factors, protective factors, perceived parental love, inability to discuss problems, and family violence. These variables were assumed to have a direct effect on the outcome variables, which were classified as follows: violent offences, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, and property offences.

Factors influencing female behaviour were categorised in five groups: risk factors, protective factors, perceived parental love, inability to discuss problems, and family violence. These five groups of variables have been suggested as the most common predictors for delinquency. Each factor was measured using a number of variables, which were frequently reported in several empirical studies.

It should be noted that there is some debate among scholars on how to conceptualise risk and protective factors (Rutter et al., 1998; Loeber et al., 1993). In the current study, the term "risk" was used to refer to those hazards or variables that, if present for a given individual, made it more likely that this individual, rather than someone selected from the general population, would develop a disorder' (Mrazek & Haggerty, 1994:127). In the current study, five items were used to measure the risk factors: father had mental health problems, father drank alcohol, mother used illegal drugs, father had been incarcerated, and one of the siblings had been incarcerated. These factors have been suggested as predictors for offending. For example, the Cambridge study found that the presence of convicted parents or a delinquent older sibling by a boy's tenth birthday were consistently among the best predictors for the boy's later offending and antisocial behaviour (Farrington, 1992).

Protective factors in the current study are used to refer to those factors or variables that may reduce incidences of problematic behaviour (Pollard et al., 1999:146). Protective factors were measured by four items: family recreational activities, mother's encouragement to pray, mother's concern about school performances, and father rewarded for good performance in studies. It has been found that low parental involvement in the child's activities predicts delinquency. In the Cambridge study, West and Farrington (1973) found that having a father who never joined in the boy's leisure activities doubled the risk of conviction. In addition, a child who received encouragement

and praise from other family members for positive interactions was less likely to engage in substance use and have problematic behaviour later in life. Moreover, low parental involvement in school also puts females at a greater risk of becoming delinquent (McAra 2005; Smith & McAra 2004).

Perceived parental love was measured by two items: mother loved male siblings more than the index girl; and father loved male siblings more than the index girl. In a number of empirical studies, it was found that children who were not emotionally attached to warm, loving, and law-abiding parents have a tendency to become delinquent (Carlson & Sroufe, 1995). The inability to discuss problems was measured using two items: where the female could not tell the mother about her problems and the female could not tell the father about her problems. It has been found that poor parent-child communication predicted delinquency according to the Pittsburgh Youth Study (Farrington & Loeber, 1999).

Family violence was measured by three items: parents have had a physical fight in front of the female subject, the father hit the mother, and the father hit the female subject when he fought with the mother. Physical violence was widely reported in Saudi literature as the most common form of violence within the family. Western literature has found that physical violence is positively related to female delinquency (Piko et al. 2005).

The behavioural outcomes within the model include 14 different types of offence: drug misuse, carrying a weapon, violent offences, attempted suicide, bullying, skipping school, smoking cigarettes, being detained in a correctional institution, being arrested by the religious police, being arrested by police, running away from home, property offences, shoplifting, and burglary.

The selection of these offences was based on the result of the first International Self-report Delinquency Study, which measured delinquency among young people in the Western world (Junger-Tas, 1994). In addition to considering other offences which relate to Saudi culture, based on the existing literature concerning delinquency, it should be noted that these offences were classified into four major categories, which were as follows: violence and drug offences, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, and property offences.

In the current study, violence and drug offences were measured by segmented into items: drug misuse, carrying a weapon, violence offenses, and attempted suicide. These offences were grouped together as they all dealt with violence, either toward others or toward one's self. For example, the use of drugs could be harmful to both society and the individual. Moreover, attempting suicide could be considered as a violent act toward one's



self. In addition, trying to commit suicide is an offence under Saudi law and is also prohibited by Islamic law. However, it should be noted that attempting suicide might be a coping strategy or a victim response to being abused or being under social pressure.

Anti-social behaviours include three offences: bullying, skipping school, and smoking cigarettes. These three offences are grouped together as anti-social behaviour in most of the existing Saudi literature. Delinquency in the current study refers to being in conflict with the law by being arrested or detained by police. Four items were used to measure delinquency: detained in the correctional institution, arrested by religious police, arrested by police, and running away from home. Running away was grouped in this category due to the fact that it is considered an offence according to Saudi law.

Finally, property offences were measured using three items: property offences, shoplifting, and theft. These offences were grouped together in order to simplify the analysis by limiting the number of variables under assessment. This point should be considered as a limitation, taking into account the fact that the disaggregation of offense categories might reveal a great deal of information about specific offences. More details about how these types of offences were generated in the present study and which sources were used to select the offences will be discussed in detail in the methodology chapter (see chapter 6).

## **5.6 Conclusion**

Family violence and female delinquency are very complex phenomena. It cannot be explained in a single theory that neatly ties together all nuances (Cuevas et al., 2007). For this reason, all previous theories that have been discussed in this chapter will be used as an explanatory foundation to interpret the study's findings. The adoption of these theories in an integrated approach helps to build the study's theoretical model, which will be tested in order to provide an explanation of the issues under investigation.

## **CHAPTER 6 METHODOLOGY**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The role of the social sciences is to discover, describe, and explain phenomena in order to answer questions such as why, how, and when certain behaviours or incidents occur (Vaus, 2004). This chapter explains and justifies the methodology that was adopted in this research. The main aim of this study is to investigate the problem of female delinquency in Saudi society from three perspectives: the prevalence and the nature of the problem; the link between family violence and female delinquency; and the risk and protective factors relating to the connection between family violence and female delinquency.

The current study explores the problem of female delinquency, as this phenomenon has not been officially recognised by the Saudi government until recently. In addition there is relatively little existing literature which addresses the problem of female delinquency in Saudi Arabia. Thus, an exploratory design was chosen. The exploratory approach is often used to investigate an entirely new area of research such as the problem under investigation. Robson (2002) defined that exploratory studies are a valuable means of finding out 'what is happening' to seek new insight, to ask questions, and to assess phenomena in a new light.

This chapter provides an explanation of the research methods, including construction of the fieldwork instrument, its validity and reliability, and the process of translating it from English to Arabic. The study sample, the sampling procedures, and the method of collecting and analysing data are also discussed.

### **6.2 Methodology of the study**

The use of quantitative or qualitative data collection and analysis depends on the research aims and objectives (Gilbert, 2008). This study was quantitative in nature due to the complexity and the sensitivity of the issues investigated, many studies in the field of criminology tend to be quantitative because of the potential for bias in qualitative research (Dantzker & Hunter, 2000, Maxfield & Babbie, 2011) Quantitative methods of research can be defined as methods such as surveys and experiments that record variation in social life in terms of categories that vary in amount (Vaus, 2004).

The present study used a survey-based approach, encompassing a self-completion questionnaire. The survey approach is one of the most popular research methods in social research, and is used when researchers are interested in the experiences, attitudes, or beliefs of individuals or when trying to determine the extent of policy, procedure, or action among a specific group (Dantzker & Hunter, 2000: 73).

A survey approach was the most appropriate method for this study for the following reasons; the issues under investigation are a sensitive topic, the study is carried out in Saudi society where people hold conservative social values, and many families prefer to deal with the problem of family violence as a private matter and prefer to keep this inside the family. For this reason, there was no likelihood of collecting data about family violence through interviews because participants would fear the possibility of being identified. In addition the sample size was quite large to ensure the majority of the population was represented, therefore, the survey method was deemed to be the most appropriate way of collecting the data for this study.

## **6.3 Sampling**

### **6.3.1 Target population (sample frame)**

The target population in this study was females between twelve and eighteen years of age who have experienced or witnessed any type of family violence (emotional, physical, or sexual) or who have been neglected during childhood. The reason for limiting the sample to this age group is that the minimum age of criminal responsibility in Saudi Arabia is twelve years (Human Rights Watch, 2008). The study investigated a group of young female students in Makkah City, which is located in the western region of Saudi Arabia. The sample consisted of girls who were randomly selected from intermediate and secondary schools in Makkah City.

The selection of Makkah city as the location frame for this study was due to several reasons; the majority of previous studies were only limited to the central region of Saudi Arabia, and only one study has been carried out in this region previously (Al-Qarni, 2005). However, Makkah has the highest population in the Kingdom, accounting for 24% of the total population according to the Census of 2007. In addition, collecting data from this area would be more convenient for me as I live in this city and I am familiar with the area. This will also help in identifying the schools which meet the sample criteria and these schools will be easy to access, saving time and effort.

### **6.3.2 The sampling procedure**

The present study used two sampling techniques to recruit participants: convenience sampling and cluster sampling.

#### **I. Convenience sampling**

Convenience samples are used for exploratory researches. This involves choosing the nearest and most convenient group of respondents. The process of recruitment is carried out continuously until the required sample is reached (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). In the present study, due to the restrictions on females in Saudi Arabia which limit their ability to travel both within and outside the country without the accompaniment of their male guardians (father, brother, or husband), I decided to collect the data from within Makkah, where I lived, because it offered me relatively easy access and was inexpensive.

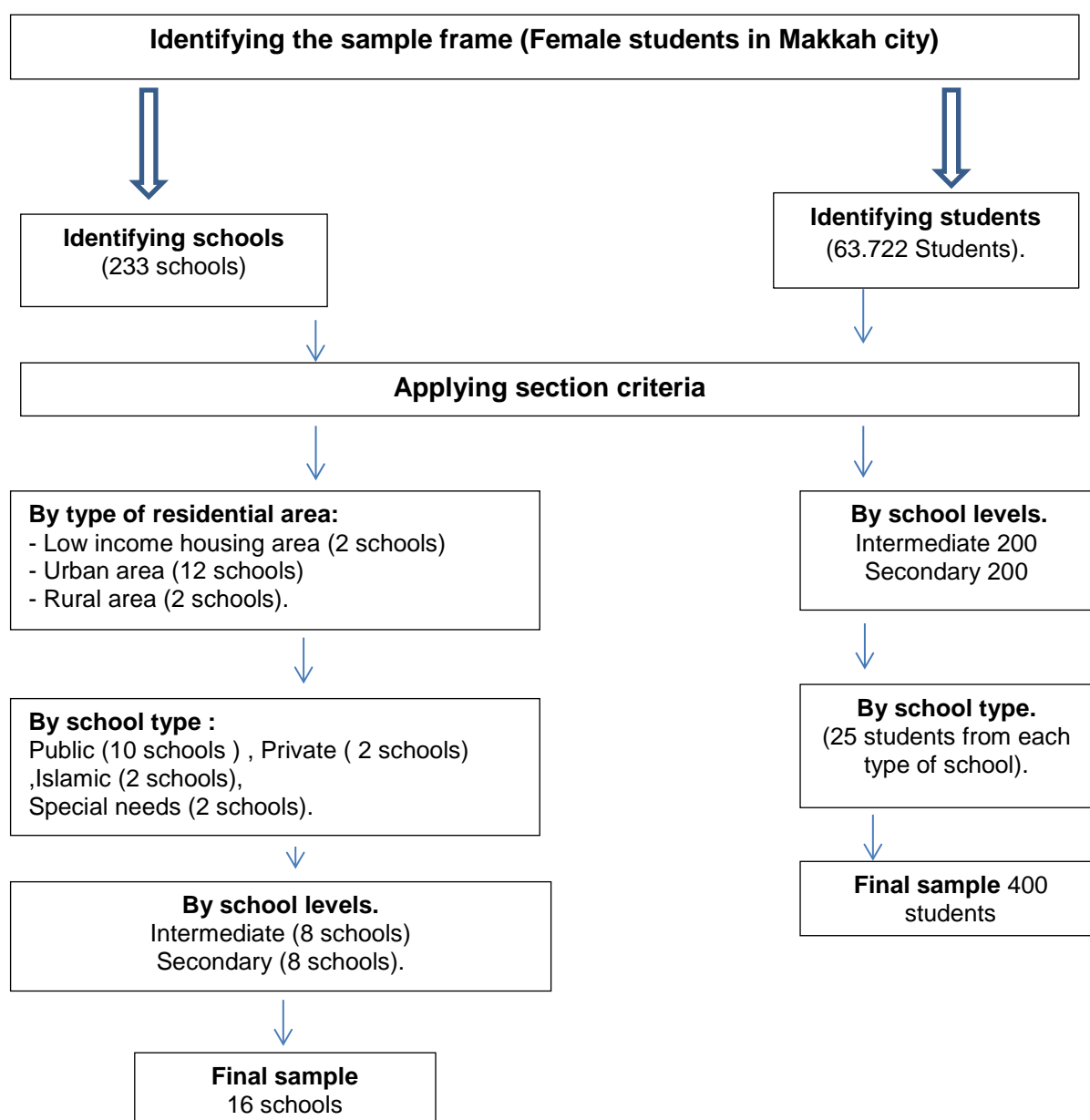
#### **II. Cluster sampling**

According to Robson (2002), this sampling tactic is particularly useful when a population is large and widely dispersed, as was the case in this study, where the total population was 63,722 students. This data collection technique requires a great deal of effort and time. In this case, the population is divided into a number of units, or clusters; in the present study, these were “schools.” Then, the sub-population within each cluster is chosen; this was “classes” in the present study.

The participants were recruited over a period of three weeks in July 2011. They came from several schools for girls (intermediate and secondary schools) in Makkah and nearby villages. Permission was granted by the Saudi Ministry of Education.

A diagrammatic presentation of sampling procedure is presented in figure 6.1:

**Figure 6.1 Sample procedure**



### ***Selection of schools***

Statistics obtained from the Department of Statistics and Research in the Ministry of Education show that the total number of female schools (intermediate and secondary schools) in Makkah City and nearby villages in the year 2010–2011 (1431–1432 according to the Islamic Calendar) was 233, and the total number of female students enrolled in intermediate and secondary schools for the 2011–2012 school year was 63,722.

**Table 6.1 Students registered in Saudi schools in Makkah city during the academic year (2011-2012)**

School type	Students		Total	Schools		Total
	Intermediate	Secondary		Intermediate	Secondary	
Public school	31862	25688	57550	82	60	142
Private school	1002	2246	3248	38	30	68
Islamic school	1897	901	2798	11	8	19
Special need school	90	36	126	2	2	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>34.851</b>	<b>28.871</b>	<b>63.722</b>	<b>133</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>233</b>

**Source: The Ministry of Education ( 2012).**

The schools were selected according to the type of residential area in which they were situated. There are three types of areas in Makkah City: urban including three sub-areas or sectors (i.e. central area, old developments, and new developments), low-income housing, and rural.

As there are more than 200 schools in Makkah City, and in view of time constraints on this study, the cluster sampling method was used to select the schools. To conduct the sampling, the city was divided into five districts based on the district's proximity to the central area (metropolitan area). These districts included the central area, the old planned area, the new planned area, the low income housing area, and the rural area. Each area included all types of schools (Islamic, special needs, private, and public schools) except the rural area, which only had public schools, and the special needs schools were only located in the new planned area.

From each area, two schools of each type were selected, and one class from each school was chosen at random. The selected schools represented all types of schools (Islamic, special needs, private, and public schools). Proportional allocation to type of schools was considered. However, it was found that 90% of the total population of student's attend public schools (Ministry of Education, 2008), therefore the schools selected were as follows. 16 schools were selected in total, 12 of these 16 schools were located in the urban area, which included three sub-areas or sectors, i.e. the central area, old developments, and new developments. This area has the highest population in the city and people who are living in these areas come from different socio-economic backgrounds, which would hopefully ensure the diversity of the sample.

The 12 schools which were selected from the urban area covered all types of schools as follows: six public schools, two private schools, two Islamic schools, and two special needs schools. The rest of the schools, which were drawn from the low income area and the rural area, included two public schools from each area.

### ***Selection of students***

After the schools had been identified, the second stage was the selection of the students. From each school one class was randomly selected. Each class was considered to be a cluster and all the students in the selected classes constituted the target group of the present study.

The total population was very large in this study; consequently studying all of the population is often impractical or impossible. Therefore, using a sample unit gives researchers a manageable and representative subset of the population (Schutt, 2009; Seale, 2004).

A sample size calculator was used to identify the sample size needed, which can be representative of the total population and would be more manageable for me as a researcher. The sample size calculator available online at [raosft.com](http://raosft.com) was used; the minimum sample size identified by the calculator was 382 with a confidence level of 95%. This number was considered acceptable, especially in the light of the time limit and resources available. In addition, several studies in the same field used similar sample sizes like the Cambridge study of delinquent development (Farrington, 1961-1981). The sample size in this study was set at 400; this was considered as sufficient for the proposed statistical analysis.

In terms of Saudi studies, many researches in the same field have used similar sample sizes, such as Al-Qarni's study (2005), which investigated a sample of 350 female intermediate school students in Makkah to analyse the relationship between different types of domestic violence, negligence, and deviant behaviour. Therefore, a sample of 382 students was considered to be an acceptable minimum sample and had been widely used and deemed to be a representative sample.

### ***Survey administration at schools***

The questionnaire was distributed in the classrooms during the social skills class. The researcher was accompanied by a social worker when giving out instructions for completing the survey to the students. The students were informed that there were no right or wrong answers, and assured that the survey would be anonymous. The instructions also explain the manner in which questions should be answered. Students

were encouraged to complete the questionnaire but were also told that they could withdraw and not complete the questionnaire if they did not wish to do so.

Sixteen schools were involved in this sample, which covered all types of residential areas in and around Makkah City. The majority of these schools (10 out of 16) were public schools. The other six schools were selected from private, Islamic, and special needs schools (two schools from each type). Both special needs schools refused to take part in this study, because they needed an interpreter to administer the questionnaire in Braille for blind students, and also because they were extremely busy, due to the fact they were in their exam period when the researcher carried out the data collection. As a result of this rejection, only 14 schools were involved in this study. The number of students who participated in this study was 422 students as shown in the table below (Table 6.2).

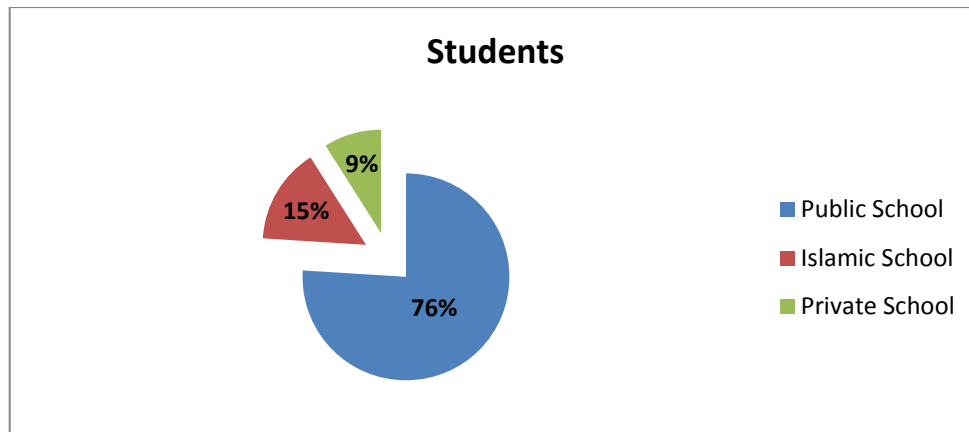
**Table 6.2 Students who participated in the present study (n=422 female students).**

<b>Residential areas</b>	<b>Schools</b>	<b>Students</b>
1. Central area	1 public	35
	1 public	30
	1 private	19
2. Old development	1 public	30
	1 public	34
	1 private	20
3. New development	1 public	22
	1 public	32
	1 Islamic	30
	1 Islamic	32
4. Low income	1 public	35
	1 public	32
5. Rural	1 public	37
	1 public	34
<b>Total</b>	<b>14 Schools</b>	<b>422 students</b>

Three hundred and twenty one students were drawn from public schools which made the largest portion of the total sample (76%), and 62 students were from Islamic schools which made up to (15%), while 39 students were from private schools (9%) of the total sample (see Table 6.2). As mentioned earlier, one class was selected randomly from each school, and all the students in the class were considered to be the target group and asked to participate in the study. The students who agreed to take part completed the appropriate consent form.



**Figure 6.2 The distribution of the students who participated in the study by the type of schools**



#### **6.4 Instrument**

The problems of family violence and female delinquency are sensitive issues, especially in a society like Saudi Arabia where people hold conservative cultural and social values. It would be difficult to obtain information about this problem using interviews. However, the interview is considered to be the best data collection method because it may provide in-depth information about the problem under investigation (Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Qahtani, 2009). Still, the strict social values held by people in that society would prevent them from talking freely about this issue. Many people have denied the fact that they have been subjected to family violence because they think that they will be labelled by society and that they might bring shame to their families if they admit to such experiences (Al-Saud, 2000; Al-Zahrani, 2005) .

In addition, the Ministry of Social Affairs refused the necessary permission to conduct face-to-face interviews with the participants. Despite the explanation of the ethical considerations followed by the researcher, the authorities showed reluctance due to the confidentiality issues and lack of trust over misuse of the information. One of the possible reasons could be the sensitive nature of the concept of studying family violence in the Saudi context. The issue of family violence is given much attention in the media and the authorities may be reluctant to be exposed and criticised.

It should be noted that using interviews may provide in-depth information about the issues under investigation. Initially, that was the instrument of choice to be used for this study, which aimed to explore the problem of family violence and female offending. However, the Ministry of Social Affairs prevented the researcher from meeting the participants face to face. For this reason, the survey method of data collection was used.

The purpose of using the questionnaire as a data collecting method in this study was mainly to obtain generalisable results, since self-administrated questionnaires can reach a larger population than interviews might (Maxfield & Babbie, 2011). In addition, the use of a questionnaire would assist in fulfilling the aims of this research by providing descriptive data of the target population's attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours (Vaus, 2002).

As with any tools used in social research, the questionnaire has its strengths and limitations. Its strengths are a consequence of being:

- Useful in describing the characteristics of a large population, in this study, young females in Makkah city.
- Able to produce generalisable results.
- Suitable for utilisation in descriptive and exploratory studies such as this one.
- Able to provide greater anonymity to students, which was deemed to be helpful since the questionnaire dealt with issues relating to their family life and their behaviour.
- A stable, consistent and uniform measure without variation.

However, its limitations were:

- Ambiguity and misunderstanding of questions could not be detected and clarified at the time.
- Students might not have reported their true experiences in order to show themselves in a good light.

The questions were carefully worded and tested several times to ensure that the questionnaire covered all the aspects that the researcher aimed to investigate. The researcher managed to distribute the questionnaire herself. This helped to achieve the maximum advantages of the questionnaire and helped the researcher to clarify any questions for the participants and to make sure that all the participants completed all questions. According to Oppenheim (1992), the advantage of personally distributing the questionnaire is that there is less chance for it to be misplaced and then not returned to the researcher.

The findings in the literature review were used to build a series of questions. The challenge was not just how to ask questions or how to word them, but also how to select questions that would enable the researcher to obtain valuable information (Newell, 1998). The content of each question was focused on different and relevant aspects of the study's aims in order to ensure that the data obtained would be relevant to the study. The

questionnaire was designed using a combination of closed and open-ended questions, and it also contained a rating scale. The questions were then developed into a questionnaire designed to permit numerical analysis and interpretation.

The building of the questionnaire goes through several stages. These stages can be summarised as follows:

#### **6.4.1 Building and adapting the research instrument**

Producing the version of the questionnaire has taken a great deal of searching and reviewing of the relevant literatures, and adopting standard questionnaires and translating them from English into Arabic. It was then tested in the field and revised several times before it was ready to use for collecting the data. The procedure adopted in formulating the questionnaire was as follows:

##### ***Step 1: searching, reading, citation, and producing the first draft***

The construction of the questionnaire started with the literature review. Through reviewing the relevant literature, some major themes were outlined and the questionnaire's design was based on these. The initial questionnaire was divided into six major areas:

##### **I. Personal and social background**

This part of the questionnaire consisted of four sections: socio-demographic information, school, parental/carer education, and parental/carer socio-economic level. This part consisted of 32 questions. The first two sections contained questions about personal matters, such as the age of the participant, their marital status, and their performance at school, while the questions in the third section contained more exploratory questions, such as the educational levels of the parents/carers, the type of residence area, and their income level. This part of the questionnaire was created by the researcher based on the result of reviewing the Saudi and western literature which was used to investigate the specific background factors related to family violence and female delinquency.

##### **II. Family**

This part consisted of three sections: family relationships, socialisation, and family life. The questions in these sections were constructed in order to obtain information about the nature of the relationship between the juvenile and her family, including parents or guardians, brothers and sisters, and even the servants who work in the home as long as they are considered, in Saudi society, to be members of the family. The questions in these sections were created by the researcher, and have been generated based on the existing Saudi literature which highlighted the factors that may influence family violence and female delinquency.

### III. Experiencing or witnessing family violence

This part contained 18 questions and was intended to find out about the prevalence and nature of family violence, and the characteristics of perpetrators. This part of the questionnaire was adopted from The Juvenile Victimization Questionnaire (JVQ) Child Self-Report (2005), established and validated by Finkelhor, Hamby, Omrod, and Turner. The JVQ has been chosen to be used in the current study, because it can be administered in self-report form down to age 8, and also offers enhanced opportunities to obtain accurate data across the span of childhood (Finkelhor et al., 2005).

It should be noted that the JVQ was designed to investigate a wide range of juvenile victimisation cases in detail. Therefore, the scope of the current study was investigating three major issues: family violence, female delinquency, and risk and protective factors. It would be impossible to ask all the detailed questions about family violence which had been covered in the JVQ, therefore based on the aim of the current study only a few questions were selected from the JVQ. The questions adopted from the JVQ were those related to: life-time experience of family violence, the perpetrator, frequency of exposure (number of incidents in the last year), injuries due to exposure to family violence. The questions covered five forms of family violence: Physical abuse, witnessing family violence between parents, witnessing family violence by parents toward female's siblings, neglect, and sexual abuse.

These questions can be found in the JVQ, Module B: Child Maltreatment. The questions were taken directly from the JVQ except the sexual abuse question which was modified according to The Saudi Ministry of Education's guideline

which restricted the researcher from asking the student any direct question about sexual issues. Therefore the original question was as follows: “In the last year, did a grown-up YOU KNOW touch your private parts when you didn’t want it or make you touch their private parts?” Or “did a grown-up YOU KNOW force you to have sex?”

The modified question was as follow: “Has anyone ever touched you or done anything with you in an immoral or unacceptable way?” In fact, the researcher collected the data herself, so she was able to explain to the student the meaning of this question clearly to avoid any possible misunderstanding.

#### IV. Handling feelings

This part focused on the coping strategies which might be used by the victim of family violence to combat the negative outcomes of experiencing or witnessing family violence that are essential for this study, especially due to the fact that some strategies are criminalised under Saudi law or forbidden by Islamic law, such as running away from home and attempting suicide. This part contained six open-ended questions to enable participants to provide more details about their problems and how they managed to deal with them. This part of the questionnaire also helped me to find out about the support that is provided by social agencies to the victims of family violence. Questions in this part were created by the researcher.

#### V. Juvenile history

This part of the questionnaire contained 15 questions that tried to capture a range of delinquent acts. The questions in this part were influenced by several major studies of juvenile delinquency, from both the Saudi and western literatures. Questions in this section aimed to provide valuable information about the most common types of offences committed by girls in Saudi society, which is a new area of research. It will also be useful to know about the types of offences in the context of Saudi culture.

The questions in this section comprised 15 statements, which sought to explore if the young females have ever committed any of the listed offences. The questions were adopted from the National Survey of Child Safety and Victimisation (NSCSV) which was developed and validated by the National Society for the Prevention of

Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) in 2009. The NSCSV has been used in the current study because it is suitable for self-administration for young people aged between 11 and 17 years old. The questions can be found in NSCSV, Section 11: Delinquency.

The questions were adopted as they were, although one more statement was added, which was about being arrested by the religious police. This statement was relevant to the Saudi context, where being arrested by the religious police would bring shame to the whole family as people were often arrested for moral offences. Religious police are formally known as 'The Commission for the Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice'. Their duties include patrolling the streets enforcing dress codes, strict separation of men and women, prayer by Muslims during prayer times, and other behaviour believed to be commanded by Islam.

#### VI. Risk and protective factors

The questions included in this part come as a result of reviewing the literature related to the possible causes of juvenile delinquency in relation to family life. The search identified several factors in delinquency, which can be divided into five major categories: family, individual, peer group, school, and community. Based on this information, 26 questions were developed to explore the possible risk and protective factors for female offenders in Saudi society. In addition, the Risk and Protective Factor Questionnaire for Grades 6 to 12 (Pollard, 2006), was useful as a basis to generate the questions in this section but none of the questions have been adopted or directly used from this established questionnaire.

#### ***Step 2: Revising the questionnaire***

In this stage, the questionnaire was revised several times under the guidance of my supervision team.

#### ***Step 3: Integrated multiple questionnaires***

The problem under investigation in this study included three major aspects, which are family violence, female delinquency, and risk and protective factors. A review of the literature revealed that there was no single questionnaire that covered all of these aspects together, nor were the additional cultural and religious factors that should be considered when a questionnaire is designed given suitable attention. Significantly, religion and cultural values in Saudi Arabia are responsible for shaping people's attitudes, practices,

and behaviour. This study was necessary in order to integrate multiple established questionnaires to measure all areas.

There are several standard questionnaires that have been widely used in both Saudi and Western studies, such as the Short Marital Adjustment Test (Locke & Wallace, 1959), the Conflict Inventory (Margolin, 1980), the Abusive Behaviour Inventory (Shepard & Campbell, 1992), and the Physical Abuse Questionnaire (Morrison & Van Hasselt, 1980). However, these measurements did not fit with the aims of this study, because these questionnaires were designed to measure spousal violence, and have previously been used to measure specific conditions like marriage adaptation, satisfaction, or risks of divorce. The present study explores all types of family violence that occur inside the home and affect family members, which has been directed or undirected towards children.

In addition, the most common measurement of family violence is the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS), which has been widely used for more than 30 years with strong evidence of validity and reliability. Its internal consistency reliability ranges from .79 to .95 (Straus, 1979; Straus, 2004). The CTS has been used widely by Saudi scholars, such as Albrithen's study (2009) which investigated the association between alcohol abuse and family violence, and the Conflict Tactics Scale was used to measure the marital conflict. However, this measurement was also unsuitable for the aims of the present study.

Each questionnaire identified in the literature search was mainly built around the aims of the specific study that they were designed for. However, all these questionnaires were related to the scope of this study, which influenced the construction of the final draft of the questionnaire. Three standard questionnaires were identified as being the most relevant to the issues under investigation in this study. All these questionnaires were designed for juveniles aged between 6 and 18 years of age and are highly valid and reliable.

From each questionnaire, only a few sections were selected to be integrated into the final draft of the questionnaire. A few questions in these sections were reworded to fit with the participants' culture. These questionnaires were:

- A. The Juvenile Victimization Questionnaire (JVQ) Child Self-Report (2005) by Finkelhor, Hamby, Ormrod, and Turner.
- B. The National Survey of Child Safety and Victimization (NSCSV) (2009), which was developed by the NSPCC. This measurement is mainly based on the JVQ, although

they used other questions to provide a fuller picture of emotional abuse and neglect, especially parenting questions.

C. Risk and Protective Factor Questionnaire for Grades 6 to 12 (2006), which was created by Dr. Jack Pollard of the University of Washington and used by Pride Surveys.

The questions which were adopted or selected from the above mentioned established questionnaires were highlighted earlier in this chapter in section (6.4.1).

#### ***Step 4: Translating the questionnaire***

This study was carried out in Saudi Arabia. All potential participants in the study spoke Arabic as their first language. The research instrument was translated into Arabic and the data collected from the subjects was then translated from Arabic into English. This required an expert translator to ensure the accuracy of the translation. The translation was undertaken by a professional team that spoke Arabic and English fluently. They were familiar with this field of study. The team consisted of two professors of social work from the Department of Social Work at the University of Umm- Al-Qura (the researcher's employer). They are members of that department's academic committee and part of their job is providing academic support for postgraduate students. They each agreed to take part in this study. They made some comments and suggested some modifications, which have been implemented.

#### ***Step 5: Judges panel***

This study investigated a sensitive issue in a society which held conservative social values, due to this reason the questions needed to be carefully worded in order to obtain a high response rate.

It was for this reason that the questionnaire (Arabic version) was submitted to a panel of experts in sociology in the Department of Social Work at the University of Umm-Al-Qura (the researcher's employer). They approved the questionnaire as a clear and understandable instrument to obtain information from young females. However, they suggested some modifications to make the wording of some questions more understandable and relevant to the cultural expectations in Saudi society. For example, in the section of the questionnaire dealing with participants' experience of violence, there were questions regarding sexual abuse. The panel of experts suggested removing these two questions because they were not acceptable to be asked due to cultural restrictions. The questionnaire was revised according to their suggestions and made ready to test.



## **Step 6 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire**

### **Validity**

The validity of a questionnaire is concerned with whether a research instrument measures the phenomenon that is the focus of the study. According to Vaus (2002), validity is the extent to which a test measures what it is intended to measure. There are four kinds of validity. **Content validity** refers to the degree to which the sample of test items represents the content that the instrument is designed to measure. The other three types of validity tests are **predictive validity**, which refers to the degree of correlation between the results of the current measurement and external criterion; **concurrent validity**, which refers to the process of relating the test scores of a group of subjects with another criterion measure administered at the same time or within a short interval of time; and **construct validity**, which refers to the extent to which a particular measuring instrument can be shown to measure a general theoretical framework or hypothetical construct (Borg & Gall, 1983 ; Punch , 2000).

In the present study, content validity was examined. This type of validity measure is a qualitative measure of validity and is often employed in survey research because it is the easiest to ascertain. Moreover, it can be secured via a panel of experts who judge the survey's appearance, relevance, and the representativeness of its elements. Content validity is an important first step in establishing construct validity because this establishes the accuracy and connection among the questions asked and variables measured (Burns, 2000).

Content validity has two common components. The first is face validity, which concerns that the measure apparently reflects the content of the concept in question (Bryman, 2008). This kind of validity may be achieved with the help of specialists or a "panel of judges". If there is agreement among the panel of judges, the researcher may presume that the instrument has face validity.

In order to achieve content validity, the construction of the questionnaire took place under the vigilant direction of the supervision team, who read the first draft of the questionnaire and provided constructive criticism. The questionnaire has been amended according to their feedback and then they gave their final approval. The final draft was translated into the Arabic language and submitted to a panel of sociology experts in the Department of Social Work at the University of Umm-Al-Qura (the researcher's employer). They

approved the questionnaire as a clear and understandable instrument to obtain data from juveniles, but some of them suggested some modifications to some questions.

The second type of content validity is **sampling validity**, which indicates that the words, statements, or questions used in the instrument adequately represent the property being measured. This type of validity test is useful in exploratory research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). To make sure that the questionnaire was clear and worded properly, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to a sample of 20 students, all of whom were Arabic speaking and studying postgraduate courses at the University of Huddersfield. They were asked to comment on the questionnaire using an evaluation form by choosing one of three responses (suitable, needs changing, and omit) for each question. Most of them agreed that the questions were clear and understandable.

### ***Reliability***

Reliability can be defined as the level of internal consistency or stability of an instrument over time (Healy & Perry, 2000). The most popular method used nowadays to calculate reliability is Cronbach's Alpha reliability. Cronbach's alpha determines the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey instrument to gauge its reliability (Burns, 2000). However, the use of Cronbach's alpha has been criticised within a latent variable modelling context, given the propensity to over- or under-estimate the reliability of a scale (see Raykov, 1998). In order to provide a more rigorous assessment of the internal reliability of the measures, the current study investigated the composite reliability. Composite reliability was calculated using the formula

$$\rho_c = \frac{\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \right)^2}{\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \right)^2 + \left( \sum_{i=1}^m (\theta_i) \right)}$$

Where  $\rho_c$  = reliability of the factor score,  $\lambda_i$  = standardised factor loading, and  $\theta_i$  = standardised error variance. Values greater than .60 are generally considered acceptable (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). The reliability coefficient is reported in the findings chapter (See Page 178).

### ***Step 7: Piloting the Questionnaire***

The questionnaire was piloted in three phases:

#### **Phase one (Postgraduate students at the University of Huddersfield)**

This phase was undertaken to establish the face validity by ensuring that the questionnaire measured what it aimed to. In this phase, the first draft of the questionnaire was produced and suggestions and advice were ascertained to improve the clarity of the questions and the layout of the questionnaire. The most suitable sample for this purpose was postgraduate students. The questionnaire was distributed to 20 postgraduate students at the University of Huddersfield in order to obtain comments and suggestions about the questionnaire.

In the feedback, the students raised an issue about the size of the questionnaire, which was quite long and might be boring for juveniles. Their advice was considered and the questionnaire was reduced to a more manageable size. Some of the students raised an issue about the section on experiences of family violence, especially the five questions concerning sexual abuse. They suggested rewording these questions to be more appropriate in terms of Arabic cultural values and to avoid these questions being omitted by Saudi authorities. The feedback was useful in improving the questionnaire in terms of rewording the questions and also the appearance of the questionnaire.

#### **Phase two (Saudi and Islamic schools in England)**

In this stage, the study was approved ethically, and the first draft of the questionnaire was produced. The questionnaire was piloted at this stage in order to test the clarity of the questions, and evaluate the questionnaire design and layout, in order to ensure that the questionnaire was well-built and would enable the researcher to gather the data needed for this study. However, due to the cost of travelling to Saudi Arabia to test the questionnaire, the study was piloted in England and the questionnaire was distributed to students in Saudi schools here.

The pilot sample was similar to the main sample; they were drawn randomly from Saudi female students between 12-18 years old. These schools were located in Huddersfield, Bradford, Leeds, Manchester, and Sheffield. The selection of these schools was conducted for two reasons: they were near where the researcher lives, and that made it easy to travel to collect the data, and there are many Saudi students living where these cities are located, so it was easy to find participants.

The sample was, in the end, only collected from the Saudi School in Bradford; the other schools (in Sheffield, Manchester, and Leeds) refused to take part due to the sensitivity of the study. Following these rejections, it was decided that the Islamic school in Bradford would be included. This school were located in the same building as the Saudi school. All of the students who were present at the time of the data collection were asked to participate in the study. Only 17 Saudi students and 8 Asian students agreed to take part in the study, and all of the students were aged between 12-18 years old.

Once the students completed the questionnaire, they were asked their opinion regarding the questionnaire to ensure that they understood the questions as intended. All students agreed that the questions were clearly written and easy to understand. The pilot study indicated that 40 minutes was sufficient time for the questionnaire to be completed. No revision was made to the questionnaire at this stage, although one final piloting was needed considering the fact that Saudi females who completed the questionnaire in England might have their opinions influenced by the way of living here and the UK education system. For example, they appeared more open minded and they expressed their feelings and opinions clearly about these two sensitive issues (family violence and female delinquency). In contrast, girls in Saudi Arabia are more reserved and they may refuse to answer the questions related to their experiences of family violence or delinquency.

### **Phase three (Schools in Saudi Arabia)**

The pilot study was carried out in Saudi Arabia in July 2011. The second draft of the questionnaire had been produced and was ready for testing. The data was collected from two female secondary schools in Makkah city (one private school and one public school). All participants were young Saudi females aged between 12-18 years.

#### **First: public school**

Forty-four students agreed to participate in the study from a total of 60 students. The response rate was very good, where 40 questionnaires were completed out of the 44.

#### **Second: private school**

Only five students agreed to take part in this study of the 14 total students.

This final piloting stage was carried out to explore the school setting in Saudi Arabia, in order to avoid any possible problems which may have occurred during the main phase of

data collection. In addition, this pilot was necessary to ensure that the questions were clear and understandable for the students.

All students agreed that the questions were clear and understandable; however they suggested that it would be better if the researcher read the questionnaire aloud at the class as they used to do during the exams. That would also save time and ensure that the students were able to complete all the questions. The response rates were very good, even in the questions related to family violence and female delinquency. The result of this stage indicates a high prevalence of family violence and delinquent behaviour. No modification or revision was applied to the questionnaire as a result of this stage.

However, several practical steps relating to the data collection procedure were considered as a result of this piloting phase. The questionnaire should be read by the researcher and questions should not be moved from until all students have completed them. In addition, the time required for completing the questionnaire will be limited to 45 minutes.

### ***Step 8: Production of the Final Version of the Questionnaire***

The final version of the questionnaire came after extensively reviewing the literature and integrating three standard questionnaires. The first draft was piloted and revised several times before the final questionnaire was produced, which was ready to collect the data (See appendix I).

## **6.5 Data management and analysis**

### **6.5.1 Basic statistical analysis**

Once the data has been collected the researcher may be overwhelmed with the large quantity of information. Blaxter et al (1996, p184) identify five ways in which the information can be broken down and made easier to handle and digest. These are:

- Annotating
- Summarising
- Coding
- Selecting
- Labelling

Since this study was classified as a quantitative study, the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18 was used to process the data, which is widely used in quantitative studies and is useful for large samples like the one in this study. SPSS 18 was used to produce the descriptive section of the findings which is related to the participants socio—demographic information. The result and findings derived from this analysis are reported in the Findings Chapter. In addition, as the current study tries to determine if there is a correlation that exists between exposure to family violence and female offending, advanced statistical analysis was needed.

## **6.5.2 Advanced statistical analysis**

### **6.5.2.1 Structural equation models**

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a statistical technique which aims to achieve an assenting approach. In other words, it tends to test already proposed hypotheses in order to evaluate a theory describing some structure pertaining to a research issue. Basically, this concept demonstrates a “causal” relation that engenders observations on various types of variables (Bentler, 1988).

The specific concept of structural equation modelling denotes two significant features of the process: (a) the causal procedures being studied are signified by a sequence of structural (that is regression) calculations, and (b) the relationships between the structures can be graphically illustrated to offer a much simpler and clearer meaning of what is happening under this concept as proposed by the theory. The hypothesised concepts can later be evaluated by calculations in an analysis, focusing on all the variables simultaneously to assess the degree to which it is persistent to the available data. In case goodness-of-fit is sufficient, the theory posits arguments for the reliability of hypothesised relations between variables. If, however, the relationship is not well established, the relationship between the variables is rejected not maintained.

There are a number of features of SEM that distinguish it from the previously suggested multivariate models. First of all, as discussed in the foregoing section, the basic approach of SEM is confirmatory to the data analysis, and will not investigative even though there can be some exploratory instances as well. Moreover, it is also required in this model to define the properties of the variables beforehand; under SEM data analysis this is mainly based on strong inferences. Contrarily, most of the other concepts of multivariate analyses are primarily characteristically descriptive (for instance, factor analysis is

essentially exploratory). Thus they make it quite cumbersome to test hypotheses, though not impossible.

In addition, while previous multivariate models are insufficient for the evaluation or accuracy of the measurement error, under SEM we can obtain clear assessments of variance found in these error parameters. In fact, substitute techniques (for example, such as those which regression or general linear models offer us) suggest that when error occurs in independent or explanatory variables, it subsequently vanishes. Therefore, it is clear that by doing so, what we are doing is outright ignoring the error and this might eventually result in serious deficiencies in the data analysis – particularly when the errors are significant. However, under SEM data analysis, such shortcomings can be avoided in a regular application. Thirdly, previous concepts of data analysis are based on observed amounts only, data analysis procedures which apply the SEM method can take into account not only the observed but also the latent (or unobserved) phenomena as well. Lastly, in order to apply alternative strategies to understand multivariate relations, we do not find handy methods. The same holds true for assessing points and/or intervals of indirect evaluations. It is only the SEM method that offers us these decisively significant characteristics.

Due to its highly beneficial features, SEM is now seen as a popular method for non-experimental research where methods for testing theories are not well developed and ethical concerns also create difficulty to conduct experimental research (Bentler, 1980). SEM can be applied quite suitably to explore many research issues that require non-experimental research designs. Both the most significant and the not so significant applications of SEM have been duly covered by quite a few influential authors. Before we discuss the Mplus method of SEM (Muthen & Muthen, 2007-2010), it is quite important that we revisit the major notions pertaining to SEM beforehand.

#### **6.5.2.2 Basic Notions of SEM**

##### **Unobserved (Latent) Vs. Observed Variables**

When it comes to behavioural studies, field experts are usually concerned with assessing theoretical constructs that we cannot directly observe. These constructs are known as unobserved (latent) variables. Family violence and risk and protective factors are examples of the latent variables included in the current project.

As it is not possible for us to directly observe latent variables, it is important to note that we also cannot measure them directly either. Therefore, the investigator must scientifically explain these unobserved variables in focus with the help of the behaviours that we assume represent them. As such, the latent variables are connected to other variables that are observable, hence enabling us to measure them. Evaluation of behaviour, thus, involves the direct assessment of an apparent variable that leads us indirectly to the measurement of the underlying latent variable. It is significant to keep in mind that behaviour is a very holistic term, used here to refer to any instrument and the resulting measurements. Therefore, our observations can offer us, for instance, the responses provided by a sample population for their attitude, scores on a school test, timed measurement of a physical performance or activity, coded responses for an interview, and so forth. These scientifically calculated measurements are known as manifest or observed variables.

In relation to the SEM concept, these variables are regarded as indicators or those notions that are directly measured. Due to this important description and relation between the latent and observed variables, it may be appropriate to understand why experts need researchers to be cautious in their decisions when approaching any scientific measurements. Though the decisions of psychometrically viable tools are quite significant for the reliability of the results of a research, these decisions can be even more crucial when the observed variable is defined to represent a subterranean construct.

### **Full Latent Variable Model**

The SEM Model permits us to specifically define and lineate the structures of a regression analysis while dealing with latent variables. In other words, it can be suggested that the investigator can theorise the influence of one unobserved notion on another construct while endeavouring to assess a causal relationship modelling. This concept is known as complete (or full), since it consists of two important features: a structural model and a measurement model. The structural model demonstrates the connections that are assumed to be found among unobserved variables; whereas, the measurement model depicts that there is a relationship between the observed and the latent variables. Thus, these two models cover a highly subtle area which may be prone to incorrect application if not understood with required clarity.

A complete SEM model that clearly states the direction of a cause coming from merely one direction is known as a recursive model. On the other hand, there is yet another



model that allows us to measure feedback or reciprocal impacts; this model is known as a non-recursive model. The present study applies recursive modelling.

In the current study an established model of female offending was specified and estimated using the Mplus version 6 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2010). Goodness-of-fit indices were used to assess the theoretical SEM model; chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ), Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR), Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990) with 90% confidence interval (90% CI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI; Tucker and Lewis, 1973). A non-significant chi-square (Kline, 2005) and values above .95 for the CFI and TLI are considered to reflect a good model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Vandenberg and Lance, 2000). However, for CFI and TLI, values above .90 indicate adequate fit (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA and RMSR values of less than .05 suggest good fit and values up to .08 indicate reasonable errors of approximation in the population (Browne & Cudeck, 1989).

#### **6.5.2.3 Latent class analysis**

According to Goodman (1974) and Lazarsfeld and Henry (1968), the latent structure analysis, or Latent Class Analysis (LCA), is an empirical process which is utilised in categorising persons within homogenous sub-groups, such as latent classes. The initial point for categorisation is the individual's experiential response pattern over a series of classifiable ordinal/nominal hypotheses or survey objects, such as question-based objects evaluated over a Likert scale; missing vs. existing symptoms; and unsolved or solved intelligence testing objects. Within the latent class analysis, the relations among the objects are described through the existence of *a priori* unfamiliar sub-populations (i.e. latent-classes). In different terms, the variations in latent class membership usually clarify the individual's difference within the observed item response pattern, whereby every class presents a featured and class specialised response profile.

The main goals of latent class analysis can be summarised as follows:

1. To examine the relationships among class memberships (family violence) and exterior variables, such as violent offending, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, mother with mental health problems, father with mental health problems, father's alcohol problem, relationship with father, and relationship with mother.
2. To assess the consistency of categorisation on the basis of particular LCA resolution.

3. To investigate the classes with respect to the ways they vary through each other; how they are interpreted significantly; and what they generally are or are similar to?
4. To ascertain the major possible latent class memberships of individuals and/or many persons for diagnostic-related purposes.
5. To ascertain the number of classes essential to adequately describe variations within an observed response pattern, as well as review the information with a significantly thoughtful manner (exploratory latent class analysis). The model needs to utilise a less latent-class (i.e. be economical at maximum) to describe the information.
6. To test the hypothesis in view of confirmatory latent class analysis regarding the typological structure.

In the current study, LCA was employed to determine the number and the nature of violent abuse risk groups based on the endorsement of each of the five items reflecting the latent construct of violent abuse. The five items were dummy coded. Three latent class models were tested (a one- through to a three-class latent class model). Selection of the optimal number of latent classes was based on several statistical fit indices. The statistical fit indices were: likelihood ratio chi-square (LR  $\chi^2$ ), Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), sample size adjusted BIC (SSABIC), the Lo-Mendell-Rubin's adjusted likelihood ration test (LRT), and entropy measures. A non-significant LR  $\chi^2$  indicates an acceptable model fit. The information statistics AIC, BIC, and SSABIC are goodness of fit measures that are used to compare competing models; lower observed values indicate better fit. The LRT statistic was used to compare models with differing numbers of latent classes; a non-significant value ( $p < .05$ ) suggests that the model with one fewer class should be accepted. Entropy is a standardised measure of how accurately participants are classified. Values range from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating better classification.

Logistic regression was used to assess the association between class membership (posterior probabilities from the model were used to assign individuals to a class) and violent offending, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, mental health problems (mother), mental health problems (father), alcohol problems (father), relationship with father, and relationship with mother. The subsequent odd ratios (OR) indicate the expected increase/decrease in the likelihood of scoring positively on a given variable compared to the reference, or control group (in this case high family violence risk group). The LCA was conducted using Mplus 6.12 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998– 2010).

#### 6.6 Ethical considerations

All stages of this research, starting with the literature review and ending with a presentation of the findings, adhered strictly to the code of ethics for researchers in the field of criminology published by the British Society of Criminology (BSC, 2006), in addition to the ethical guidelines published by the Social Research Association in 2003 (SRA, 2003).

Participants were not identified or identifiable from any report emanating from this research. No direct identifiers have been collected such as names or addresses, and no information which might allow anyone to deduce the subjects' identities was presented. All participants who agreed to take part in this study have signed the appropriate consent forms (see appendix G).

The researcher has assured respondents that information provided by them will be treated as confidential. This assurance was reinforced in a number of ways:

1. The research goal and the research processes were fully explained to participants. The researcher assured participants that the information they provide would be used for research purposes only and will not be disclosed to third parties.
2. All data has been saved in electronic format on my computer, which is password protected. The data collected was entered into an electronic database in my computer. The access to this data was restricted to authorised research personnel for the specific purposes of this research only.
3. All respondents' information was under my exclusive control, and once the study is completed the records will be destroyed in accordance with the University's policies.

Finally, all data collected was stored securely and used solely for the research purpose outlined in this study proposal, in accordance with the current legislation, including the Data Protection Act of 1998.

## **6.7 Seeking permission from Saudi authorities**

This stage of the study was the most difficult. Initially, the researcher planned to interview young female offenders who had been detained at a female care centre, also known as a female correctional institution. The researcher applied for permission from the Ministry of Social Affairs in October 2009, and received a rejection on April 29, 2010, due to a riot that had taken place at the centre on January 20, 2010. Due to the inability to gain access to this study sample, the researcher decided to use an alternative sample. The new sample included young females who had been exposed to family violence and who were

current residents at the Social Protection Centre (SPC). The interview that had originally been part of the planned methodology was replaced with a self-completed questionnaire. Moreover, although permission was granted for this sample, the institution's manager placed some restrictions on the work. She did not allow the researcher to distribute the questionnaires, and offered only limited access to the centre. The sample size at that time was seven females, and there were only five completed questionnaires. Such a small sample would not have been sufficient to produce any generalisations from the results. In light of these difficulties, which prevented the researcher from adequately accessing both samples mentioned above, a school sample was determined to be the best available option. This sample required permission from the Ministry of Education, which was granted in February 2011.

## **6.8 Summary**

This chapter has presented an overview of the research methods. It began by explaining the use of the survey-based approach and its benefits in the context of the current research. This was followed by a discussion of various data collection methods and their suitability, given the research aims. This chapter concluded with an indication of the statistical analysis used to present the study results. The next chapter will present the research findings.

## **CHAPTER 7 STUDY FINDINGS**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter discussed the methods that were used to carry out this research. This study was carried out to investigate the extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency in Saudi Arabia, and establish whether there is a correlation between these two phenomena. This chapter will reflect on the statistical analysis conducted after data collection.

This chapter is structured around four main sections. The first section describes the socio-demographic and biographical characteristics of the sample (age, marital status, educational level, academic performance, nationality, and area of residence) and their parents/carers' socio-demographic and biographical characteristics (age, educational level, employment status, and income). The second section begins with descriptive statistics concerning the girls' experience of family violence (prevalence, frequency, type, and perpetrator). This is followed by a series of cross-tabulations that are designed to provide a better understanding of the type, extent, and nature of family violence experienced by participants. The third section begins with descriptive data concerning the girls' delinquency (nature, prevalence, frequency). This is followed by a series of cross-tabulations that are designed to better understand the type, extent, and nature of girls' delinquency. This descriptive information provides the basis for more advance analysis.

The final section of this chapter comprises more sophisticated analyses of the violence and delinquency data to examine the correlations between them. A theoretical model of female offending was tested within the confines of latent variable modelling (structural equation model of female offending – see Figure 7.5). The particular focus was on the relationship between family violence, risk and protective factors, family related variables, and female offending.

## 7.2 Socio-demographic characteristics

This section presents the results that are related to the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample and the family structure.

### 7.2.1 The participant's demographic information

The target sample consisted of 422 females, (a total of 422 questionnaires were distributed). Out of these, 412 were fully completed which gives a response rate of approximately 98%. According to Babbie (2000) a response rate equal to or greater than 70% is considered as a 'very good' response. Table 7.1 presents the socio-demographic and biographical characteristics of the girls. As can be seen, the age of the sample ranged from 12 to 22 years. As is also shown in the table, 19 % of the females fell in the age range of 12-14 years. The majority of the females were between the ages of 15-17 years (52%). 18-20 years olds accounted for 28 % of the sample, while only 1 % of these females were over 20 years of age.

The majority of the females in this sample were single (96%), 72.5% of them were in secondary school<sup>19</sup>, while 27.5% of the females were in intermediate school<sup>20</sup>.

The majority of the respondents reported being satisfied with their school academic performance. According to the self-reported feedback, 42% of them had reported very good achievement in school, and 46% claimed having good achievement.

The majority of the females (86.3%) were of Saudi nationality. Pakistanis made up the highest proportion of non-Saudis in the group (3.1%), followed by Yemenis at 2.4%.

A young female's place of residence was taken as an indicator of socio-economic background. The vast majority of the females lived in urban areas (77%), while 22% of them lived in rural areas. A minority lived in semi-rural areas (1%).

The following Table 7.1 contains a description of the general characteristics of the sample.

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<sup>19</sup> Usually the age range of students studying at the secondary school level is 15- 18 years.

<sup>20</sup> Usually the age range of students studying at the intermediate school level is 12- 14years.

**Table 7.1 Demographic details of participants (N=422)**

<b>Participant's characteristics</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Age (n=422)</b>		
12- 14	80	19
15-17	219	52
18-20	119	28
Over 20	4	1
<b>Marital status (n=422)</b>		
Single	405	96
Married	8	2
Engaged	6	1
Divorced or separated	3	1
<b>Education level (n=422)</b>		
Secondary level	306	72.5
Intermediate level	116	27.5
<b>Academic performance (self-reported) (n=422)</b>		
Very good	177	42
Good	194	46
Average	49	11.6
Poor	1	0.2
Very poor	1	0.2
<b>Nationality (n=422)</b>		
Saudi	365	86.5
Non-Saudi	57	13.5
<b>Residence area (n=420)</b>		
Urban	322	77
Rural	93	22
Semi-rural	5	1

### 7.2.2 The parents' socioeconomic and socio-demographic information

The data in Table 7.2 shows that the majority (89%) of the respondents reported that their parents were married, while 4% were either separated or divorced.

In terms of the parents' ages, the majority of female's mothers (63%) and fathers (44%) were in the 35-45 years age group.

Regarding parents' educational level, 28% of the fathers and 16% of the mothers had attended college. A small proportion of parents (6% of the fathers and 3% of the mothers) had graduate-level education (a master's or doctorate degree).

The employment status of the parents was as follows: 64% of the females' fathers were employed compared with only 14 % of their mothers.

The economic status of the family may, along with other factors, be very important in determining children's deviant behaviour. However, there is no data available on estimated average monthly income for Saudi families in Makkah. The information in this

table reveals that the majority of respondents (63%) claimed that they did not know their families' income. 14% of the females came from families whose incomes were in excess of 7900 SR per month (which is equivalent to an estimated 1,359.77 GBP), while 8% of the females came from families with monthly incomes of between 6000-7900SR (6000 SR is approximately 1,032.74 GBP). These two income categories are considered relatively high.

On the other hand, 3% of the females claimed that their families had incomes below 2900 SR per month (approximately 499.16 GBP) and 4% of them claimed a monthly income of 2900-3900 SR (approximately 671.28 GBP). These incomes appear low, particularly considering that more than (65%) of the students came from families with 6-10 members, and only 6% of the total sample came from middle-income families (4000-5900RS).



**Table 7.2 Demographic details of the participant's parents (N=422)**

<b>The parents' characteristics</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Marital status (n=418)</b>		
At least one of the parents deceased	30	7
Still married	372	89
Divorced	13	3
Separated	3	1
<b>Father's age (n=360)</b>		
Dead	113	31
35-45	160	44
46-55	45	13
56-65	17	5
Over 66	25	7
<b>Mother's age (n=361)</b>		
Dead	5	1
25-34	28	8
35-45	228	63
46-55	92	25
56-65	7	2
Over 66	1	1
<b>Father's education level (n= 412)</b>		
Illiterate	34	8
Primary	60	15
Intermediate	92	22
Secondary	85	21
College	115	28
Higher Education	26	6
<b>Mother's education level (n= 412)</b>		
Illiterate	67	16
Primary	117	28
Intermediate	99	14
Secondary	52	13
College	64	16
Higher Education	13	3
<b>Father's employment status (n=410)</b>		
Employed	263	64
Not employed	147	36
<b>Mother's employment status (n= 410)</b>		
Employed	57	14
Not employed	353	86
<b>Father's monthly income (n=411)</b>		
More than 7900SR	87	21
6000-7900SR	50	12
4000-5900SR	56	14
2900-3900SR	17	4
Less than 2900SR	20	5
I do not know	181	44
<b>Mother's monthly income (n=411)</b>		
More than 7900SR	33	8
6000-7900SR	16	4
4000-5900SR	1	1
2900-3900SR	0	0
Less than 2900SR	4	1
I do not know	357	87

### 7.3 The extent and nature of family violence among young females in Saudi Arabia

The analysis in this section seeks to address the following research aims: assess the life-time prevalence of family violence and neglect, identify the most common types of family violence, and recognise the perpetrators of each type of violence.

#### 7.3.1 The prevalence of family violence and neglect

Table 7.3 shows that the prevalence of family violence and neglect in the sample was quite high. The majority of the sample (58.5%) reported that they were exposed to or had witnessed family violence during their lifetime, while 41.5% of them claimed that they had not been exposed to any kind of family violence or neglect during their lifetime.

**Table 7.3 The life-time prevalence of family violence and neglect in the sample (N=412)**

<b>Experiencing family violence and neglect</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Exposed to family violence and neglect	241	58.5
Not exposed to family violence and neglect	171	41.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>412</b>	<b>100</b>

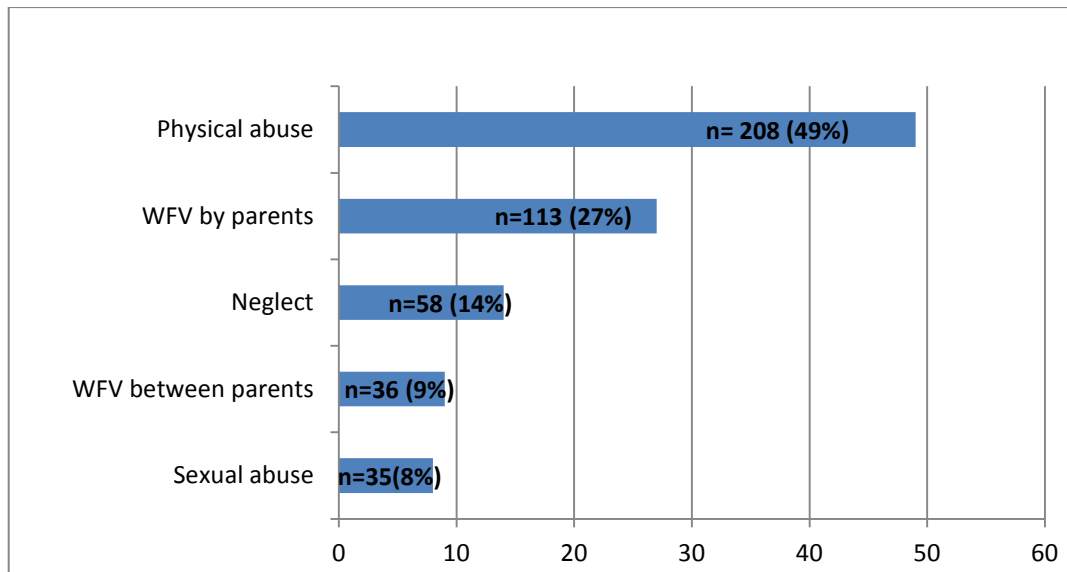
Figure 7.1 below shows the prevalence of family violence and neglect classified by type of violence. Before discussing each type of family violence, it should be clarified that missing data was excluded from the calculation of the prevalence of family violence. This missing data was for participants who did not answer the questions related to family violence.

Figure 7.1<sup>21</sup>, shows that physical abuse was the most frequent type (reported by 49% of respondents), then witnessing family violence by parents toward the female's siblings (27%), neglect (14%), followed by witnessing family violence between parents (9%) and sexual abuse (8%).

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<sup>21</sup> WFV : witnessing family violence

**Figure 7.1 The prevalence of family violence and neglect classified by type of violence (Percentage)**



### 7.3.2 The frequency of family violence and neglect

**Table 7. 4 the frequency of family violence and neglect during the last year**

Type of family violence	Frequency			
	Minimal	Low	Moderate	Severe
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Physical abuse (n=205)	50(24)	114(56)	30(7)	11(5)
Witnessing FV by parents towards female's sibling (n=117)	27(23)	90(77)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Witnessing FV between parents (n=37)	15(41)	17(46)	2(5)	3(8)
Neglect (n=57)	15(26)	33(58)	9(16)	0 (0)

The frequency of each type of family violence was measured by asking the participants to rate the extent to which they were exposed to a specific type of violent act during the past year. The majority of the females reported having been exposed to low levels of physical abuse, and witnessing family violence by parents and towards their female siblings. These results indicate the presence of some abuse in Saudi society (see Table 7.4).

The cut-off point was set for each type of abuse at four levels of maltreatment i.e., minimal (if they were exposed to one incident last year), low (if exposure to the abuse was between 2-3 incidents), moderate (if it was between 4-6 incidents), and severe (if it was 7 incidents or more).

### 7.3.3 The perpetrator of family violence and neglect

Figure 7.2 below presents the distribution of the perpetrators of incidents of family violence over the past year, as reported by the participants. The overall number of perpetrators (N=302) was calculated by calculating the total number of abusers for each type of family violence, which were physical abuse (N=208), neglect (N=57), and sexual abuse (N= 37).

Brothers were the most frequently reported abusers (38%), followed by biological fathers (22%). According to Al-zahrani (2005), within Saudi families, these particular family members are given a high level of authority in supervising and disciplining any females in the household.

**Figure 7.2 The perpetrator of family violence and neglect (last year) .**

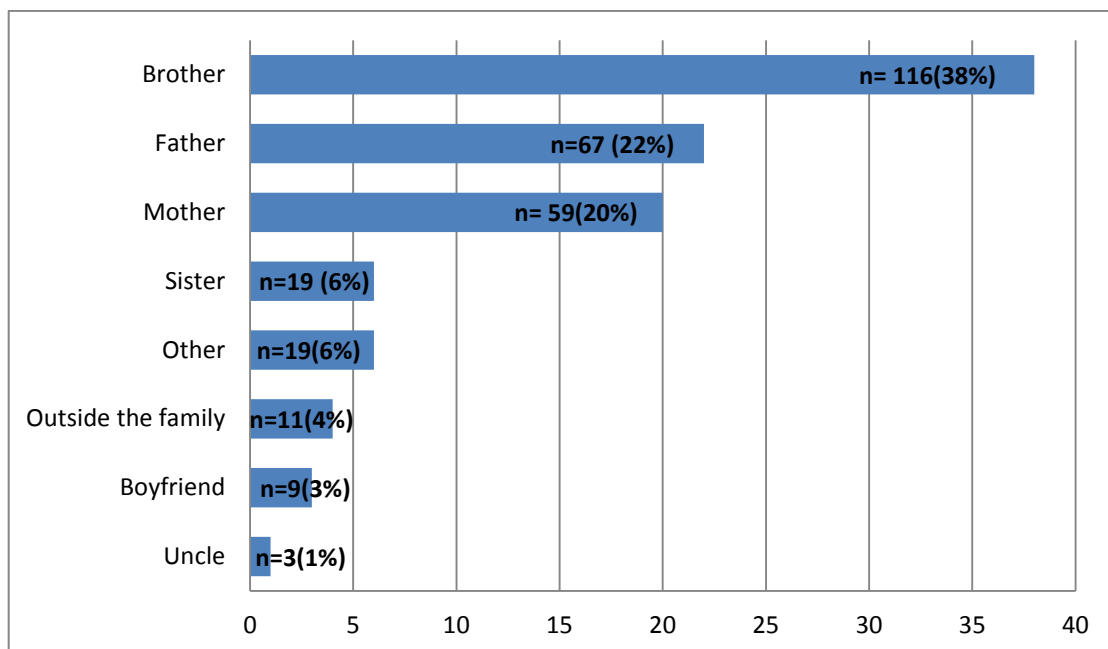


Table 7.5 provides details about the perpetrators who were involved in various types of family violence and neglect, as noted by the participants in the incidents reported over the last year. Brothers were found to be the most common perpetrators of family violence, in particular in cases of physical abuse, where 46% of the abusers were brothers of the victim. The same was true for sexual abuse; here, brothers again were 46% of all

perpetrators, followed by boyfriends (24%). In the neglect category, fathers were the most common perpetrators, making up 50% of the abusers, followed by mothers, who represented 22% of the abusers in this category.

**Table 7.5 The perpetrator of family violence in the sample classified by the type of family violence**

<b>The perpetrator</b>	<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>Brother</b>	<b>Sister</b>	<b>Boyfriend</b>	<b>Uncle</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>Outside the family</b>
	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>N (%)</b>
Physical abuse (n=208)	35 (17)	40 (19)	95 (46)	15 (7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	12 (6)	11(5)
Neglect (n=57)	29 (50)	19 (22)	4 (7)	4 (7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (3)	0 (0)
Sexual abuse (n= 37)	3 (8)	0 (0)	17 (46)	0 (0)	9 (24)	3 (8)	5 (14)	0 (0)

## **7.4 The extent and nature of female offending among young females in Saudi Arabia**

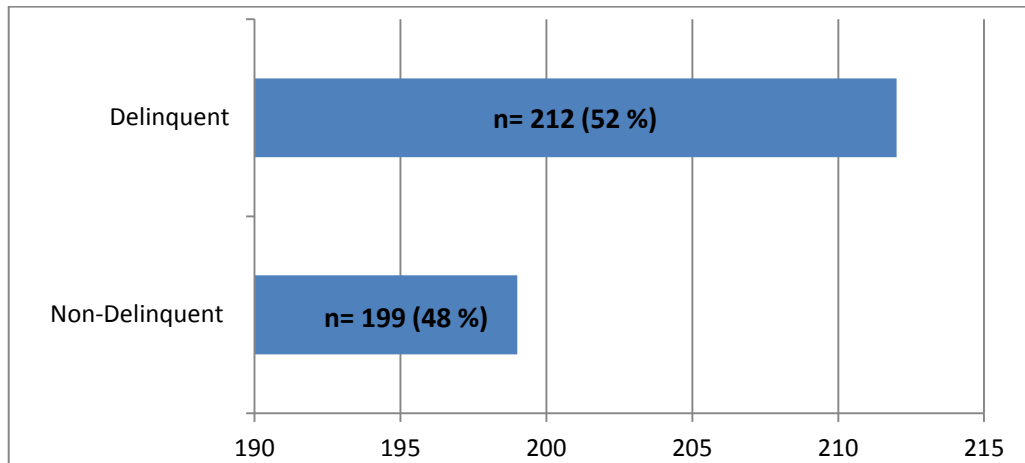
The analysis in this section sought to address the following research aims: to assess the life-time prevalence of female offending and to identify the common type of offending among young females in Saudi Arabia.

### **7.4.1 The life-time prevalence of female offending**

The rate of delinquency in the sample was found to be considerably high; it was found that 52% of the sample reported having committed at least one delinquent act in their lives. Respondents are categorised as non-delinquent if they did not report any offence and delinquent if they committed at least one offence out of the 14 different types of offences<sup>22</sup>. Furthermore, no distinction is made between minor or serious offenders regardless of whether they have smoked cigarettes only once or committed numerous acts of violence or used drugs frequently. The results are shown in the figure below (Figure 7.3).

<sup>22</sup> Property offenses, drugs misused, bullying offences, burglary offences, skipped school smoking cigarettes, carrying a weapon, shoplifting , violent offenses , tried to commit suicide, run away from home, arrested by police or religious police , detained in the correctional institution.

**Figure 7. 3 The prevalence of female offending in the sample (N=411)**



#### **7.4.2 The life time prevalence of different types of offenses**

This section reports the life time prevalence of delinquent behaviour among females in the present research. The frequency of the 14 different types of offences will be presented first. Following this, the result after grouping the offences into four categories will be presented. The main reason behind the grouping was to simplify the analysis; the basis of this grouping was discussed earlier in chapter 5 (for details see Page 124).

The life time prevalence of the 14 types of offences is shown in Table 7.6. The most common type of offence reported by females was the use of illegal drugs (15%), followed by carrying a weapon .i.e. a knife when they were going to school (13%) and skipping school (10%). 9% of the females reported attempting suicide. Additionally, smoking cigarettes was reported by (9%), the other offences were represented to a lesser extent.

**Table 7.6 Life time prevalence of different type of offenses**

Type of offenses	Yes N (%)	No N (%)
Violent offenses	25 (6.0)	385 (94)
Drugs misuse	60 (15)	350 (85)
Carrying a weapon	54 (13)	355 (87)
Tried to commit suicide	39 (9.0)	371 (91)
Skipping school	44 (10)	366 (89)
Smoking cigarettes	38 (9.0)	372 (91)
Bullying offenses	28 (7.0)	382 (93)
Burglary offenses	27 (7.0)	382 (93)
Property offenses	32 (8.0)	378 (92)
Shoplifting offenses	2 (0.5)	408 (99.5)
Detained in correctional institution	0 (0.0)	410 (100)
Arrested by police	2 (0.5)	408 (99.5)
Arrested by the religious police	1 (0.2)	409 (99.8)
Running away from home	23 (6.0)	387 (94)

The offences were classified into four major categorises based on the type of offences.

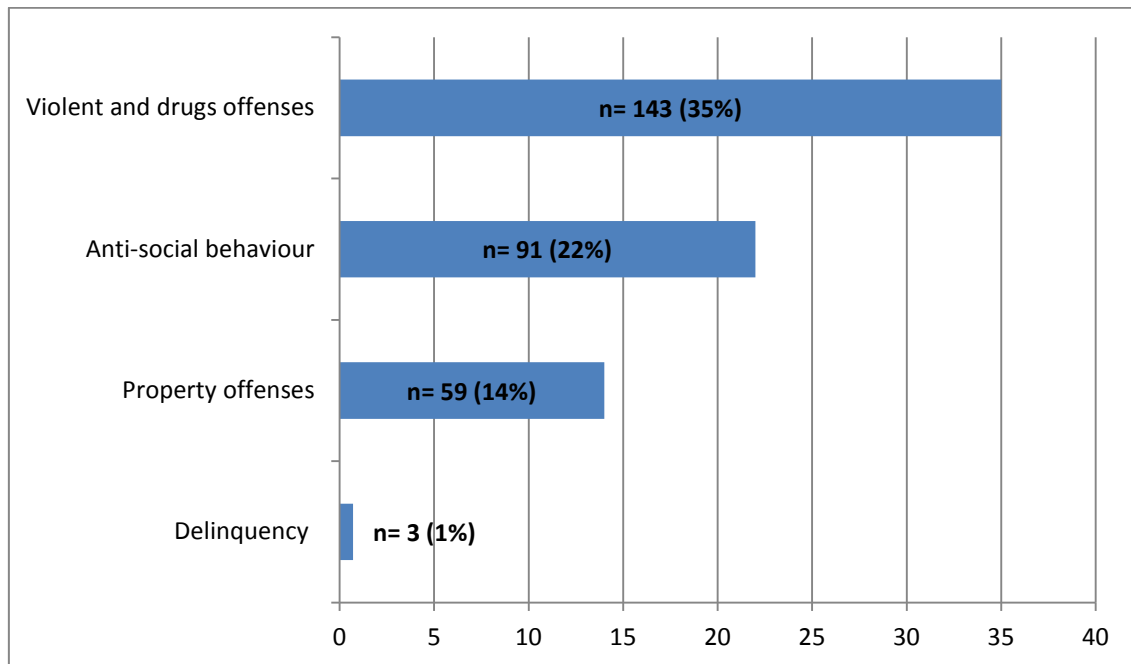
- Violent and drugs abuse offences ( drugs misuse, carrying a weapon, violence offences, tried to commit suicide)
- Anti-social behaviour (bullying offences, skipping school, smoking)
- Property offences (property offences, shoplifting, burglary)
- Delinquency or status offenses (detained in the correctional institution, arrested by religious police, arrested by police, running away from home)

It should be mentioned that the figure presented below (figure 7.4) shows some degree of discrepancy. Figure 7.3 shows the overall picture of the data whereas figure 7.4 presents more in- depth information

The prevalence<sup>23</sup> of delinquency over the respondent's life time is shown in Figure 7.4. Thirty five percent of participants reported having committed violent and drug related offences throughout their life span. Results also showed that antisocial behaviour was reported by 22%, and the property related offences by 14% of the sample. The least commonly reported delinquent behaviour was having been arrested by the religious police due to disorderly behaviour (1%).

<sup>23</sup> The prevalence refers to the number of individuals self-reporting at least one of these offenses types during the last year.

**Figure 7. 4 The life time prevalence of different types of offenses in the sample (N=411)**



#### **7.4.3 The frequency of female offending (last year)**

Table 7.7 presents the frequency of self-reported delinquent behaviour among the participants over the past year. The results indicate that all offences were committed occasionally (1–2 times), with anti-social behaviour as the most prominent offence (79%). In terms of delinquent offences, on the other hand, only 3% of participants reported these as occasional. Violence-related offences were also more common, with 37% of the females reporting having committed such acts more frequently.

**Table 7. 7 Categorised frequency of self-reported delinquent behaviour during the last year**

Frequency	Violent and drugs offences N (%)	Anti-social behaviour N (%)	Property offences N (%)	Delinquency N (%)
Occasionally (1-2 times)	90 (63)	72 (79)	40 (68)	3(100)
More frequent (3 +times)	52(37)	19 (21)	19(32)	0 (0)
<b>Total</b>	142(100)	91(100)	59(100)	3(100)



## 7.5 Analysis of the association between demographic variables and family violence and delinquency in the study sample

As noted in the literature, several factors other than family violence may influence delinquent behaviour, such as family's low socioeconomic status, poor school performance, and association with a delinquent peer group.

To examine the influence of such extraneous variables, a chi-square test was carried out to identify any significant association between family violence and the following categorical variables: female's age group, type of residence area, female's educational level, parental employment status, parents' educational level, parents' marital status, parents' age group, and number of people in the household.

### 7.5.1 Family violence and demographic characteristics

This section presents the tabulation based on selective demographic variables and family violence as reported in the current study.

#### 7.5.1.1 Prevalence of family violence and neglect by girls' age groups

The cross tabulation presented in Table 7.8, shows whether or not the girls' exposure to family violence was affected by the girls age groups. Fifty percent of females exposed to family violence and neglect fell in the age group between 15-17 years. The Chi Square analysis suggested non-significant associations between age range and exposure to family violence ( $\chi^2 = 1.667$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 7.8 The distribution of family violence and neglect in the sample by age group**

Experiencing family violence and neglect	Age group N (%)				Total
	12-14	15-17	18-20	+20	
Exposed to FV and neglect	43(18)	121 (50)	74 (31)	3 (1 )	241 (100)
Not exposed to FV and neglect	30(17.5)	95 (56)	45 ( 26 )	1 ( 0.5 )	171 (100)

#### 7.5.1.2 Prevalence of family violence and the residence area

Table 7.9 shows the distribution of family violence in the sample across areas of residence. Eighty percent of females whom were reported to have been exposed to family violence at some point in their lives were from the urban areas of the country.

The chi-squared test suggested that there was a significant association between residential area and exposure to family violence ( $\chi^2 = 8.055$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

**Table 7.9 Prevalence of family violence by residence area**

Experiencing family violence and neglect	Type of residence area			Total
	Urban	Semi-rural	Rural	
Exposed to FV and neglect	194 (80)	4 (2)	43 (18)	241 (100)
Not exposed to FV and neglect	123 (72)	0 (0)	47 (28)	170 (100)

#### 7.5.1.3 Prevalence of family violence by female's educational level.

The educational level of the females is shown in Table 7.10. The majority of females who were exposed to family violence or neglect (73%) were studying in secondary school. It was found that there was no significant association between educational level and exposure to family violence ( $\chi^2 = .258$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 7.10 Prevalence of family violence by female's educational level.**

Experiencing family violence and neglect	Female's educational level		
	Intermediate	Secondary	Total
Exposed to FV and neglect	66 (27)	175 (73)	241 (100)
Not exposed to FV and neglect	43 (25)	128 (75)	171 (100)

#### 7.5.1.4 Prevalence of family violence by parents' employment status

Table 7.11 shows the distribution of family violence in the sample across the parent's employment status. Sixty five percent of females who were exposed to family violence had fathers who were working/employed while the ratio was comparatively low for their mothers (i.e., only 15% of the sample reported their mothers as employed). The chi-squared test suggested no significant associations between categorical variables for both groups (fathers  $\chi^2 = .125$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ; mothers  $\chi^2 = .054$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 7.11 Girls' experiences of family violence by parental employment status**

Experiencing family violence and neglect	Father N (%)			Mother N (%)		
	Employed	Not employed	Total	Employed	Not employed	Total
Exposed to FV and neglect	155 (65)	84 (35)	239 (100)	37 (15)	202 (85)	239 (100)
Not exposed to FV and neglect	108 (63)	63 (37)	171 (100)	20 (12)	151 (88)	171 (100)

#### 7.5.1.5 Prevalence of family violence by parents' educational level

Table 7.12 shows the distribution of family violence in the sample across parents' educational level. The chi-squared test suggested no significant association between categorical variables for both groups (fathers  $\chi^2 = .125$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ; mothers  $\chi^2 = .054$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 7.12 Prevalence of family violence by parents' educational level**

FV	Father's educational level N (%)						Total
	Illiterate	Primary	intermediate	secondary	college	H. Education	
Exposed to FV	17 (7)	31 (13)	50 (21)	60 (25)	68 (28)	13 (5)	239 (100)
Not exposed	17 (10)	28 (16)	41 (24)	25 (15)	47 (27)	13 (12)	171 (100)

FV	Mother's educational level N (%)						Total
	illiterate	Primary	intermediate	secondary	college	H. Education	
Exposed to FV	37 (15)	64 (27)	58 (24)	31 (13)	43 (18)	6 (3)	239 (100)
Not exposed	30 (18)	52 (30)	41 (24)	20 (12)	21 (12)	7 (4)	171 (100)

#### 7.5.1.6 Prevalence of family violence by parent's marital status

Table 7.13 shows the distribution of family violence in the sample across parents' marital status. For those females who were exposed to family violence, the majority's parents were still married (90%). The chi square test ( $\chi^2 = 5.087$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ) suggested that no significant association existed between family violence/ neglect and parent's marital status.

**Table 7.13 Prevalence of family violence by parent's marital status**

Experiencing family violence and neglect	Parent's marital status N (%)				Total
	Married	Separated	Divorce	One of the parents deceased	
Exposed to FV and neglect	215 (90)	3 (1)	9 (4)	13 (5)	240 (100)
Not exposed to FV and neglect	150 (88)	0 (0)	4 (2)	16 (10)	170 (100)

### 7.5.1.7 Prevalence of family violence by parent's age group

Table 7.14 presents the distribution of family violence in the sample across their parent's age group. Chi square tests were carried out to examine the associations between family violence and parent's age group. Results indicated non-significant associations between categorical variables for both groups (fathers  $\chi^2 = 3.904$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ; mothers  $\chi^2 = 4.162$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ). However, the percentage distribution showed that for the majority of females who were exposed to family violence, their fathers were aged between 46 and 55 (47%) and mothers were between the age range of 35-45 (65%).

**Table 7.14 Prevalence of family violence by parent's age group**

FV	Father's age group N (%)					
	Dead	35-45	46-55	56-65	66 +	Total
Exposed to FV	11 (5)	64 (31)	97 (47)	25 (12)	8 (4)	205 (100)
Not exposed	14 (9)	45 (30)	60 (41)	20 (14)	9 (6)	148 (100)

FV	Mother's age group N (%)						
	Dead	25-34	35-45	46-55	56-65	66 +	Total
Exposed to FV	3 (1 )	18 (9)	133 (65)	47 (23)	4 (2)	0 (0)	205 (100)
Not exposed	2 (1)	10 (7)	89 (60)	45 (30)	2 (1)	1 (1)	149 (100)

### 7.5.1.8 Prevalence of family violence by the number of household

Table 7.15 presents the prevalence of family violence according to the number of household. A Chi-square test ( $\chi^2 = 3.067$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p > .05$ ) indicated that there was no significant association between household size and exposure to family violence/neglect.

The percentage distribution, however, suggested that the majority of females that had been exposed to family violence and neglect belonged to households with 6-10 members (63%), which suggested that females who were living in crowded houses were more likely to be exposed to family violence than those living in less crowded houses.

**Table 7.15 Prevalence of family violence by the number of household**

Experiencing family violence and neglect	Number of household n (%)			
	1-5	6-10	+11	Total
Exposed to FV and neglect	62 (26)	153 (63)	26 (11)	241 (100)
Not exposed to FV and neglect	97 (27)	114 (67)	10 (6)	171 (100)

### 7.5.2 Delinquency and demographic characteristics

This section presents the cross-tabulation of the selected demographic variables and delinquent behaviour as reported in the current study. It is important to note that delinquent behaviours were measured by four dichotomous variables (violent and drugs offences, antisocial behaviour, property offences, and delinquency).

#### 7.5.2.1 Prevalence of delinquency in the sample by the age group

Table 7.16 shows the prevalence of delinquent behaviour and females' age groups. A majority of the females fell in the age range of 15-17 years for all delinquent behaviour categorises. The rate of participation in offending appeared to rise gradually between 15 and 17 years. The youngest female group in the sample (12-14 years) was slightly less likely to have committed an offense in their life time. After the age of 20, the rate of involvement in offending declined for all types of offenses.

There is no significant association between age and the type of offence. Chi-square results were as follows: Violent and drugs offences  $\chi^2 = 1.834$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Anti-social behaviour  $\chi^2 = 5.205$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Property offences  $\chi^2 = 1.169$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p > .05$ ; and Delinquency  $\chi^2 = .696$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p > .05$

**Table 7.16 prevalence of delinquency in the sample by the age group**

Type of offenses	Age group in years N (%)				Total
	12-14	15-17	18-20	Over 20	
Violent and drugs offences	21 (15)	79 (55)	41 (29)	2 (1)	143 (100)
Anti-social behaviour	18 (20)	54 (59)	19 (21)	0 (0)	91 (100)
Property offences	12 (20)	29 (49)	18 (31)	0 (0)	59 (100)
Delinquency	0 (0)	2 (67)	1 (33)	0 (0)	3 (100)

#### 7.5.2.2 Prevalence of delinquency by female's residential area

Table 7.17 shows the distribution of offences committed by females across the types of residential area. Chi square tests were carried out and the results were significant for the association between property offences and residential area ( $\chi^2 = 9.603$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p < .008$ ). The results of the chi-square tests for the rests of the categorical variables were not significant (Violent and drugs offences  $\chi^2 = 2.865$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Anti-social behaviour  $\chi^2 = 5.050$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Delinquency  $\chi^2 = .237$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p > .05$ ). The percentage distribution also suggested that all types of offences were common in urban areas.

**Table 7.17 prevalence of delinquency by female's residential area**

Type of offenses	Type of residence area N (%)			
	urban	Semi-rural	rural	Total
Violent and drugs offences	104 (73)	1 (3)	38 (27)	143 (100)
Anti-social behaviour	63 (69)	1 (1)	27 (30)	91 (100)
Property offences	37 (63)	0 (0)	22 (37)	59 (100)
Delinquency	2 (67)	0 (0)	1 (33)	3 (100)

**7.5.2.3 Prevalence of delinquency in the sample by parent's marital status**

Table 7.18 shows the types of offences committed by young females and their distribution according to parental marital status. As shown, the majority of parents were married. A relatively small percentage of sample who exhibited criminal involvement reported at least one of their parents as deceased. Chi square results indicated non-significant associations between categorical variables (Violent and drugs offences  $\chi^2 = .944$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Anti-social behaviour  $\chi^2 = 5.953$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Property offences  $\chi^2 = 1.520$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Delinquency  $\chi^2 = .374$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 7.18 Prevalence of delinquency in the sample by parent's marital status**

Type of offenses	Parents' marital status N (%)				
	Married	Separated	Divorced	At least one of the parents deceased	Total
Violent and drugs offences	125 (87)	1(1)	6(4)	11(8)	143 (100)
Anti-social behaviour	77(85)	0 (0)	5 (5)	9 (10)	91 (100)
Property offences	53 (90)	1(2)	2 (3)	3 (5)	59 (100)
Delinquency	3 (100)	0(0)	0(0)	0 (0)	3 (100)

**7.5.2.4 Prevalence of delinquency in the sample by parents' educational level**

Table 7.19 presents the prevalence of delinquency and parental education level. As shown in the table 7.19, the cross tabulation has been carried out between various offences reported by females compared to their parents' educational attainment. Chi square results indicated non-significant associations between the type of offences and fathers' education level (Violent and drugs offences  $\chi^2 = 5.969$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Anti-social behaviour  $\chi^2 = 5.969$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Property offences  $\chi^2 = 5.406$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Delinquency  $\chi^2 = 3.386$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Similar results were reported for the mother's group. Chi square results indicated non-significant associations between categorical variables (Violent and drugs offences  $\chi^2 = 1.212$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p > .05$  ; Anti-social behaviour  $\chi^2 = 4.350$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Property offences  $\chi^2 = 3.675$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$  ; Delinquency  $\chi^2 = 2.575$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 7.19 Prevalence of delinquency in the sample by parents' educational level**

Type of offenses	Fathers' educational level N (%)						Total
	Illiterate	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary	College	Higher education	
Violent and drugs offences	8 (6)	21 (15)	26 (18)	33 (23)	44 (30)	11 (8)	143 (100)
Anti-social behaviour	7 (8)	12 (13)	28 (31)	16 (18)	21 (23)	7 (8)	91 (100)
Property offences	4 (7)	8 (14)	17 (18)	13 (22)	11 (19)	6 (10)	59 (100)
Delinquency	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (10)	2 (90)	0 (0)	3 (100)

Type of offenses	Mothers' educational level N (%)						Total
	Illiterate	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary	College	Higher education	
Violent and drugs offences	24 (17)	42 (29)	31 (22)	17 (12)	25 (17)	4 (3)	143 (100)
Anti-social behaviour	12 (13)	30 (33)	22 (24)	9 (10)	13 (14)	5 (5)	91 (100)
Property offences	14 (24)	16 (27)	14 (24)	7 (12)	6 (10)	2 (3)	59 (100)
Delinquency	1 (33)	0 (0)	1 (33)	0 (0)	1 (33)	0 (0)	3 (100)

#### 7.5.2.5 Prevalence of delinquency in the sample by parents' employment status

Table 7.20 shows the distribution of the type of offences according to parents' employment status. Sixty six percent of females who had committed violent related offences reported their fathers were employed. Similar trends were presented for the other offences where fathers were predominantly employed. Chi square results indicated non-significant associations between type of offences and father's employment (Violent and drugs offences  $\chi^2 = .268$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$  ; Anti-social behaviour  $\chi^2 = .424$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Property offences  $\chi^2 = .399$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$  ; Delinquency  $\chi^2 = 1.689$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Mothers, in this sample were largely unemployed, irrespective of the nature of offences. Chi square results indicated non-significant associations between type of offences and mother's employment (Violent and drugs offences  $\chi^2 = .845$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$  ; Anti-social

behaviour  $\chi^2 = .215$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Property offences  $\chi^2 = .802$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$  ; Delinquency  $\chi^2 = .953$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 7.20 Prevalence of delinquency in the sample by parents' employment status**

Type of offenses	Parents' employment status					
	Father			Mother		
	Employed	Not employed	Total	Employed	Not employed	Total
Violent and drugs offences	94 (66)	49 (34)	143 (100)	23 (16)	120 (84)	143 (100)
Anti-social behaviour	61(67)	30 (33)	91(100)	14 (15)	77 (85)	91 (100)
Property offences	40 (68)	19 (32)	59 (100)	6 (10)	53 (90)	59 (100)
Delinquency	3 (100)	0 (0)	3 (100)	1 (10)	2 (90)	3 (100)

## 7.6 Analysis of the correlation between family violence and delinquency in the sample of females

### 7.6.1 Structural Equation Model (SEM)

This study aims to identify the underlying factors associated with family violence and its impact on female behaviour. A structural equation model (SEM) of female offending was estimated in order to examine the correlation among the variables of family violence and female offending. Figure 7.5 shows a theoretical structural equation model of female offending.

The proposed model examined the associations between five exogenous (criterion) latent variables and four endogenous (outcome) observed variables. Latent variables were identified as follows: risk factors, protective factors, perceived parental love, inability to discuss problems, and family violence. These variables were assumed to have a direct effect on the outcome variables (violent offences, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, and property offences), and that effect is represented in the path diagram by unidirectional arrows.

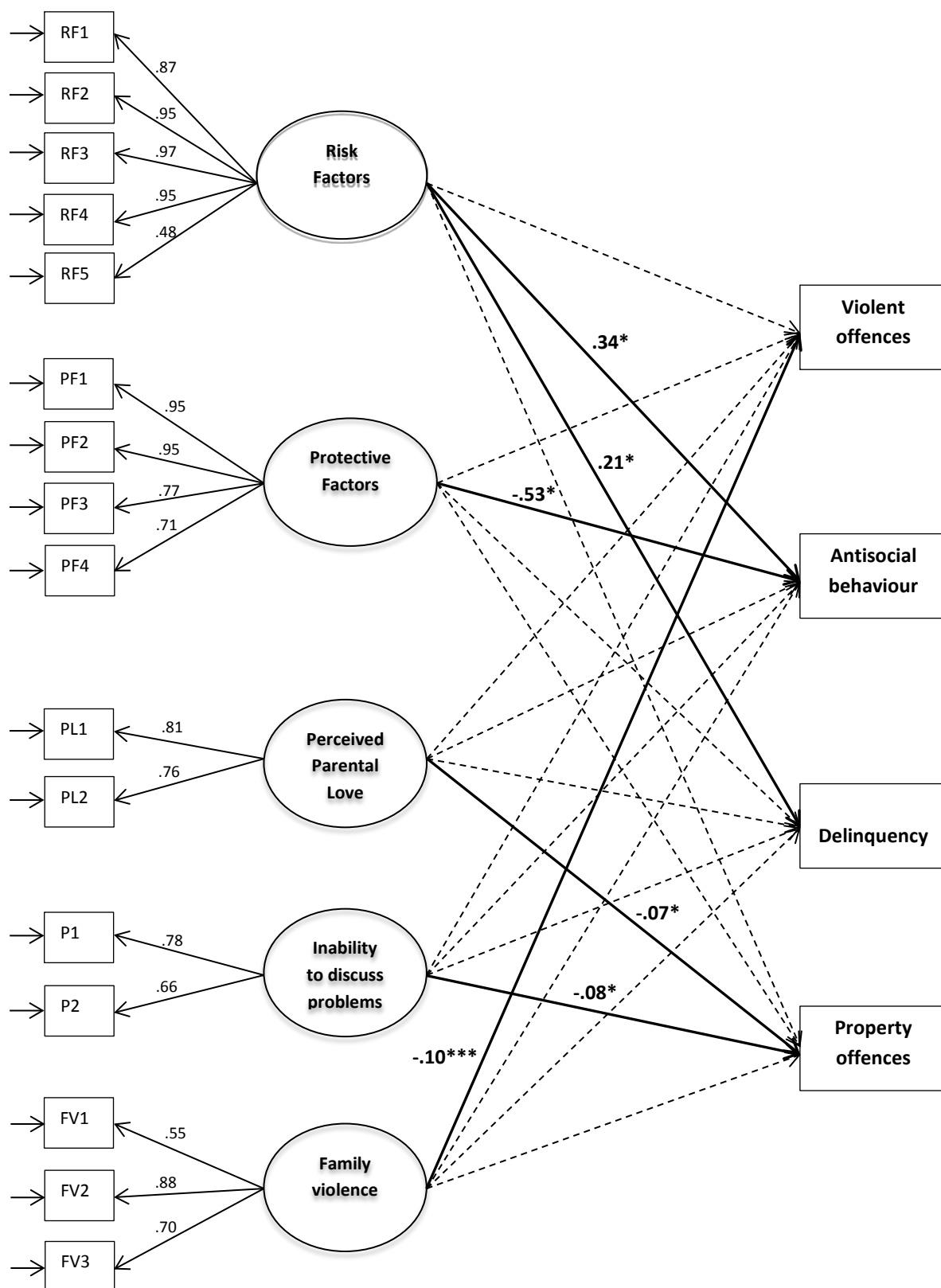
Five latent variables were measured by observed variables (items). Risk factors were measured using five items (father had mental health problems, father drank alcohol excessively, mother used illegal drugs, father had been incarcerated, and one of the siblings had been incarcerated). Protective factors were measured by four items (family



recreational activities, mother's encouragement to pray, mother's concern about school performances and father rewarded for good performance in studies). Perceived parental love was measured by two items (mother loved male siblings more than the index female; father loved male siblings more than the index female). Two items were used to measure the inability to discuss problems (Could not tell mother about problems and could not tell father about problems). Family violence was measured by three items (parents have had a physical fight in front of female, the father hit the mother, and the father hit the female when he fought with the mother). The outcome variables within the model were identified as follows: violent offences, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, and property offences (they are discussed in section 7.4.2).

In the current study an established model of female offending was specified and estimated in Mplus version 6 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2010). Goodness-of-fit indices were used to assess the theoretical SEM model; chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ), Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR), Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990) with 90% confidence interval (90% CI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI; Tucker and Lewis, 1973). A non-significant chi-square (Kline, 2005) and values above .95 for the CFI and TLI are considered to reflect a good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Vandenberg and Lance, 2000). However, for CFI and TLI, values above .90 indicate an adequate fit only (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA and RMSR values less than .05 suggest good fit and values up to .08 indicate reasonable errors of approximation in the population (Browne & Cudeck, 1989).

Figure 7.5 Strcural Equation model of female offending.



### 7.6.1.1 Descriptive statistics and composite reliability

Table 7.21 presents descriptive statistics and composite reliability for the continuous variables included in the study.

**Table 7.21 Descriptive statistics and composite reliability for continuous variables**

Variable	M	SD	Range	Composite Reliability
Risk factors	.16	.49	0 – 5	.93
Protective factors	3.52	.81	0 – 4	.91
Perceived parental love	3.47	2.18	2 – 10	.76
Inability to discuss the problems	4.83	2.47	2 – 10	.69
Family Violence	4.12	1.82	3 – 15	.76
Violent offences	.41	1.01	0 – 6	n/a
Antisocial behaviour	.40	.96	0 – 7	n/a
Delinquency	.01	.08	0 – 1	n/a
Property offences	.28	.83	0 – 7	n/a

Table 7.22 presents the correlation between all observed variables.

**Table 7.22. Bivariate correlations between all observed variables**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Violence	--								
2. Antisocial Behaviour	-.02	--							
3. Delinquency	-.01	.08	--						
4. Property Offences	.23**	.18**	-.03	--					
5. Risk Factors	-.06	.07	.03	-.05	--				
6. Protective Factors	.04	-.02	.02	-.10*	-.02	--			
7. Parental Love	-.03	.03	-.01	-.01	.10*	-.17**	--		
8. Inability to discuss problems	.05	.01	-.01	-.06	.03	.16**	-.20**	--	
9. Family Violence	-.14**	.03	.03	.03	.14**	-.25**	.29**	-.12*	--

Note: \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

### 7.6.1.2 Model assessment

The fit of the SEM model of female offending (Figure 6.5) was satisfactory ( $\chi^2 = 497.02$ ,  $df = 138$ ,  $p > .05$ ; RMSEA = .071, 90% CI = .069 / .087; SRMR = .074; CFI = .987; TLI = .982) and explained 15% of the variance in antisocial behaviour, 4% of the variance in violent offending, 8% of variance in delinquency, and 2% of variance in property offending.

### **7.6.1.3 Standardised and Unstandardised regression weights for full SEM of female offending**

Table 7.23 shows standardised and unstandardised regression weights for the specified structural equation model of female offending. As can be observed, the risk factors have a significant positive direct effect on antisocial behaviour ( $\beta = .34$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and on delinquency ( $\beta = .21$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This result suggests that the presence of one or multiple risk factors increases the likelihood of a young female committing delinquencies and antisocial behaviour offences.

Protective factors were significantly negatively correlated with only one outcome variable: antisocial behaviour ( $\beta = -.53$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This result suggests that if protective factors are absent or weak, then the likelihood of a young female committing antisocial behaviour offence will increase.

Perceived parental love ( $\beta = -.07$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and inability to discuss problems with parents ( $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p < .05$ ) were both significantly negatively correlated with property offending. This result suggests that the lack of parental affection and support is linked to an increased likelihood of committing property offences.

Additionally, there was a negative significant correlation between family violence and violent offences ( $\beta = -.10$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which suggests that females who are exposed to family violence are less likely to committed violent offences.

**Table 7.23 Standardised and Unstandardised regression weights for full SEM of female offending**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>B</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>SE</b>
<b>Measurement Level</b>			
<i>Risk factors (RF) by</i>			
Father had mental health problems	1.00	.87***	.10
Father drunk alcohol	.96	.95***	.05
Mother used illegal drugs	.96	.97***	.03
Father had been incarcerated	1.92	.95***	.04
One of the siblings had been incarcerated	.51	.48***	.13
<i>Protective factors (PF) by</i>			
Family recreational activities	1.00	.95***	.05
Mother's encouragement to pray	1.21	.95***	.06
Mother's concern about school performance	.57	.77***	.16
Father rewarded female for good performance in studies	.49	.71***	.18
<i>Perceived parental love (PL) by</i>			
Mother loved male siblings more than female	1.00	.81***	.11
Father loved male siblings more than female	.83	.76***	.10
<i>Inability to discuss the problems (P) by</i>			
Could not tell mother about problems	1.00	.78***	.13
Could not tell father about problems	.70	.66***	.11
<i>Family Violence (FV) by</i>			
Parents have had a physical fight in front of female	1.00	.55***	.05
Father hit mother	.92	.88***	.08
Father hit female when he fought with mother	.43	.70***	.06
<b>Structural Level</b>			
RF ==> Violent Offences	-.67	-.19	.10
PF ==> Violent Offences	.05	.04	.21
PL ==> Violent Offences	.02	.02	.06
P ==> Violent Offences	.04	.05	.06
P ==> Violent Offences	-.17	-.10***	.03
FV ==> Violent Offences	1.58	.34*	.36
RF ==> Antisocial Behaviour	-.92	-.53*	.54
PF ==> Antisocial Behaviour	-.05	-.04	.07
PL ==> Antisocial Behaviour	-.03	-.02	.06
P ==> Antisocial Behaviour	.02	.01	.05
FV ==> Antisocial Behaviour	1.47	.21*	.25
RF ==> Delinquency	-.94	-.37	.39

PF ==> Delinquency	-.13	-.07	.04
PL ==> Delinquency	.05	.03	.06
P ==> Delinquency	-.05	-.02	.01
FV ==> Delinquency	2.11	.04	.04
RF ==> Property Offences	-2.52	-.13	.13
PF ==> Property Offences	-1.04	-.07*	.03
PL ==> Property Offences	-1.05	-.08*	.04
P ==> Property Offences	-.23	-.01	.02
FV ==> Property Offences			

**$R^2$**

Violent Offences  $R^2 = .04$ ; Antisocial Behaviour  $R^2 = .15$ ; Delinquency  $R^2 = .08$ ; Property Offences  $R^2 = .02$

#### ***Fit Indices***

$\chi^2 = 497.02$ ,  $df = 138$ ,  $p > .05$ ; RMSEA = .071, 90% CI = .069 / .087; SRMR = .074; CFI = .987; TLI = .982

Note: \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

### **7.6.2 Latent class analysis (LCA)**

LCA was employed to determine the number and the nature of family violence risk groups based on the endorsement of each of the five items reflecting the latent construct of family violence. The five items were dummy coded. Three latent class models were tested (using a one- through to a three-class latent class model). Selection of the optimal number of latent classes was based on several statistical fit indices. The statistical fit indices were: likelihood ratio chi-square (LR  $\chi^2$ ), Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), sample size adjusted BIC (SSABIC), the Lo-Mendell- Rubin's adjusted likelihood ration test (LRT), and entropy measures. A non-significant LR  $\chi^2$  indicates an acceptable model fit. The information statistics AIC, BIC, and SSABIC are goodness of fit measures that are used to compare competing models; lower observed values indicate a better fit. The LRT statistic was used to compare models with differing numbers of latent classes; a non-significant value ( $p < .05$ ) suggests that the model with one fewer class should be accepted. Entropy is a standardised measure of how accurately participants are classified. Values range from 0 to 1 with higher values indicating better classification.

Logistic regression was used to assess the association between class membership (posterior probabilities from the model were used to assign individuals to a class) and violent offending, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, mental health

problems (mother), mental health problems (father), alcohol problem (father), relationship with father, and relationship with mother. The subsequent odd ratios (OR) indicate the expected increase/decrease in the likelihood of scoring positively on a given variable compared to the reference, or control group (in this case a high family violence risk group). The LCA was conducted using Mplus 6.12 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998– 2010).

Table 7.24 presents the endorsement rates for each of the five family violence items for the entire sample, after list-wise deletion of missing data. There is a certain degree of variability in the endorsement rates for all items. The criteria of witnessing family violence between parents, parental neglect, and experience of immoral situations were met by a relatively small percentage of the sample. The criteria of physical abuse and witnessing violence by parents against the females' siblings were met by a larger proportion of the sample.

**Table 7.24 Prevalence rates of family violence**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Criteria endorsed count (%)</b>
Physical abuse	208 (49.3)
Family violence (between parents)	36 (8.8)
Witnessing violence against siblings	113 (27.6)
Parental neglect	58 (14.1)
Experience of immoral situation	35 (8.5)

The fit indices for alternative latent class analyses are presented in Table 7.25. The 2-class solution is considered to be the best model; LR  $\chi^2$  is non-significant at .001 level and the information statistic (BIC) is marked lower than 1 and 3 class solutions. Most importantly, the Lo-Mendell-Rubin's LRT indicates that the 3 class model is not significantly better than the 2 class model; therefore the 2 class solution is preferred on the basis of parsimony. The entropy value (.70) indicates an acceptable classification of participants.

The latent profile plot of family violence is presented in Figure 7.6. Class 1 was a substantially larger class (71% of participants) and was characterised by the lower probability of endorsing any of the family violence items. Class 2 (29%) was characterised by the higher probability of endorsing all items, particularly physical abuse and witnessing violence against siblings. This class was considered the high violent abuse group.

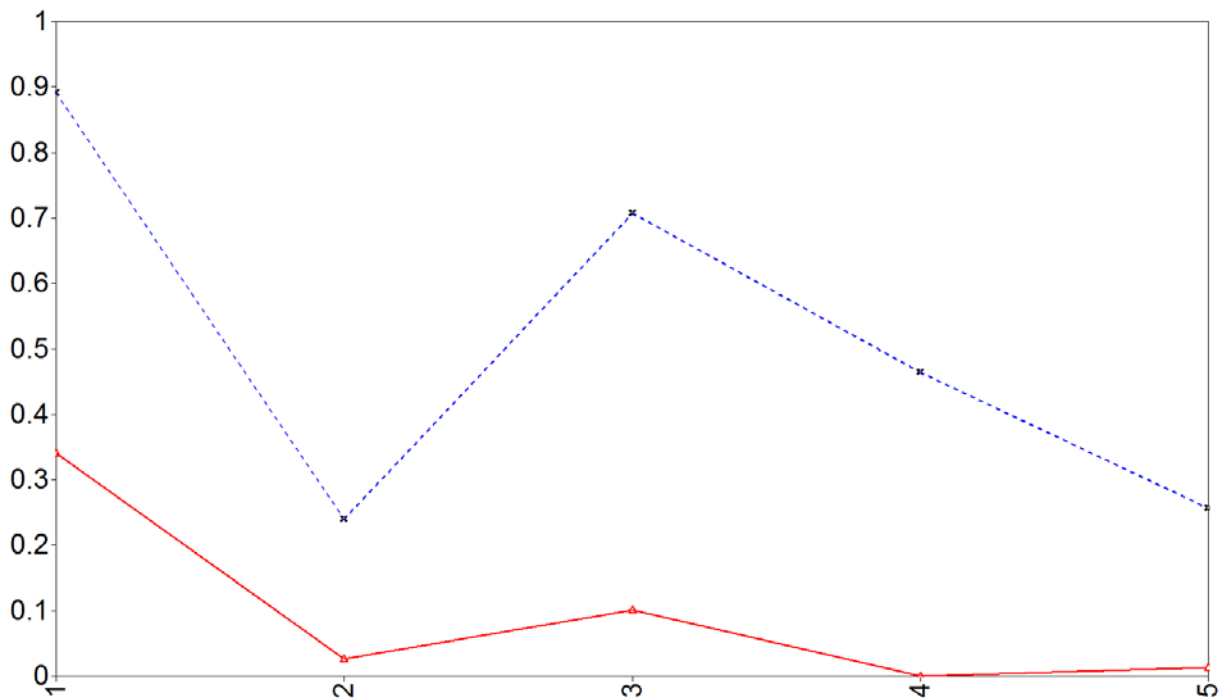
**Table 7.25 Fit indices for the latent class analysis of family violence**

<b>Model</b>	<b>LR <math>\chi^2</math> (df)</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>AIC</b>	<b>BIC</b>	<b>SSABIC</b>	<b>LRT</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Entropy</b>
1 class	225.44(25)	.00	1895.81	1916.04	1900.17	---	---	---
2 classes	34.59 (20)	.03	1712.86	<b>1757.36</b>	<b>1722.45</b>	189.72	.00	.70
3 classes	19.44 (14)	.15	1709.71	1778.48	1724.53	14.74	.36	.70

*Note:* LR  $\chi^2$  = likelihood ratio chi-square, AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayesian information criterion, SSABIC = sample size adjusted BIC, LRT = Lo-Mendell-Rubin's adjusted likelihood ratio test.



**Figure 7.6 Latent class profile plot of family violence**



*Note:* Class 1 – solid line with triangles (71%); Class 2 – dashed line with crosses (29%)

### 7.6.3 Logistic regression model of family violence

Table 7.26 reports the results from the logistic regression used to assess the association between the family violence and violent offending, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, mental health problems (mother), mental health problems (father), alcohol problems (father), relationship with father, and relationship with mother. A significant negative association was found between class 1 membership (low risk group) and antisocial behaviour ( $OR = .62$ ). These results indicate that participants who are in the low risk group of violent abuse (class 1) are less likely to commit antisocial acts compared to those participants in the high risk group (class 2).

Furthermore, positive relationships with the father ( $OR=1.17$ ) and mother ( $OR=4.40$ ) are significantly associated with class 1 membership. Participants who indicated a good relationship with their mother were over 4 times more likely to be assigned to the low violent abuse group (class 1). Similarly, participants who indicated a good relationship with their father were 1.7 times more likely to be assigned to the low violent abuse group (class 1).

**Table 7.26 Logistic regression model of family violence**

Variable	B	SE	OR (95% CI)
Violent offending	.10	.16	1.11 (.80/1.52)
Antisocial behaviour	-.48	.16	.62** (.46/.85)
Delinquency	-1.59	.13	.20 (.02/1.87)
Property offences	-.02	.18	.98 (.69/1.40)
Mental health problems (mother)	-.03	.86	.97 (.18/5.27)
Mental health problems (father)	-2.45	.48	.09(.01/1.60)
Alcohol problem (father)	2.60	.70	13.52 (.48/81.80)
Relationship with father	.54	.25	1.71* (1.06/2.77)
Relationship with mother	1.46	.34	4.30*** (2.20/8.43)

*Note.* Reference group: high risk group (family violence), B = estimate, SE = Standard Error, OR = Odds Ratio, 95, and CI = Confidence Interval. \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

## 7.7 Summary

This chapter presented the empirical findings of the current study. The analysis carried out in this study provided interesting outcomes in which a number of findings were significant in relation to the link between family violence and female delinquency. The findings of the present study may show points of convergence with and divergence from previous research studies. Interpretations of these findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

“Criticism is something you can easily avoid by saying nothing, doing nothing, being nothing”  
– Aristotle –

### 8.1 introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the outcomes of the data analysis presented in the preceding chapter and compare these findings with previous empirical studies. The chapter further interprets the present study's results and provides a critical evaluation of the issues under investigation.

This study was carried out to explore the extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency in the Western part of Saudi Arabia, and to examine the factors associated with family violence as well as its impact on female behaviour. It is one of the few studies to explore the association between exposure to family violence and development of behaviour problems among young females in Saudi Arabia. Most of the previous related studies have focused on male delinquents (Al-Humouri, 2001; Al-Jaafri, 1999; Al-Maliky, 1989; Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Sadhan, 1996; Arafa, 1990). According to Al-Askah (2005), female delinquency in Saudi Arabia is a taboo subject, as almost no one wants to admit that it exists. Nahsal (2013) believes that the sensitivity regarding this subject, and the conservative nature of Saudi culture, has prevented scholars from addressing such social problems.

Considering the dearth of research exploring such issues in Saudi Arabia, the present study aimed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To assess the extent and nature of family violence experienced by young women in Saudi Arabia.
2. To identify the perpetrators of family violence in Saudi Arabia.
3. To analyse the extent and nature of female delinquency in Saudi Arabia.
4. To examine the risks and protective factors that might be associated with the likelihood of young women developing behaviour problems.
5. To establish a latent profile of family violence (risk groups) and assess the association between class membership to a particular risk group and violent offences, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, parental mental health problems, father's alcohol abuse, relationship with mother, and relationship with father.

This chapter is comprised of two main parts. The first section discusses the extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency in the study sample, while the second section discusses the association between family violence and female delinquency. Following this discussion, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made for further research to address the problems of family violence and female delinquency in Saudi Arabia.

## **8.2 The extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency**

This section examines the key findings in relation to the two key aspects of the study: family violence and female delinquency.

### **8.2.1 The extent of family violence**

The current study assessed the extent of family violence among young females in Saudi Arabia. In this study the extent was based on lifetime experiences of family violence that were reported by the participants. The present study found that the majority of the participants (58.5%) were exposed to or had witnessed family violence and neglect during their lifetime. This result indicates that family violence is quite extensive in Saudi Arabia. However, few studies have been carried out to assess the prevalence of family violence in Saudi Arabia (Al-Saud, 2000; Al-Tayar, 2010; Al-Tayar, 1997; Al-Youssef et al., 2004; Al-Zahrani, 2005). The results obtained from these studies confirm that family violence exists in Saudi Arabia to some extent, but there is disagreement about the extent of the problem. Some studies report relatively high levels of violence (Al-Mahroos, 2008), while others report much lower figures (Al-Brithen, 2006). These contradictory results may be due to several reasons:

- There are no national databases or official resources with information relating to the extent or nature of social problems, such as family violence, in Saudi society.
- The official reports that are available from various organisations and governmental departments provide inconclusive findings.
- No national surveys have investigated the extent of family violence across Saudi Arabia, with the exception of one study carried out by the Ministry of Social Affairs in 2004.
- Most of the existing studies carried out by academic scholars are limited to specific areas in Saudi Arabia, primarily the central region and capital city of Riyadh.

- The existing studies concentrate mostly on child maltreatment in general, often excluding neglect and the witnessing of family violence.

For these reasons, the extent of family violence in Saudi Arabia is still not accurately known. Despite these limitations, the results of the present study were compared to the findings of international studies and to the available data in the Saudi literature.

The present study found that the extent of family violence in the study area (Makkah City) is relatively high. This finding is consistent with the results of an official Saudi report by the National Society for Human Rights (NSHR, 2006), which indicated that 480, or 67%, of the 731 family violence cases received by the NSHR from 2004 to 2006 came from the Makkah area, one of four reporting regions. The first national study of family violence in Saudi was conducted by the Ministry of Social Affairs (2005) and found a similar result. Makkah had the highest number of reports of family violence among 13 cities investigated by this national study. A possible explanation for the high number of cases from the Makkah area is that 36% of the city's population consists of children under 15 years old, the highest rate among the 13 cities included in this survey, according to the 2007 Census (Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2012).

However, the number of family violence cases detected by the NSHR seems small compared to the number found in the present study. This discrepancy could be due to the methods used to collect data. The current study used a self-report technique in which females were asked about their lifetime experiences of family violence, while the NSHR report was based on cases of family violence reported to the organisation. Moreover, there are several possible explanations for the NSHR result. First, official data in Saudi Arabia often underestimates the problem, and several scholars have questioned its accuracy and claimed that it might not reflect the extent of the problem (Al-Angari, 2004; Al-Qahtani, 2009). Second, it is difficult to report family violence to the authorities in a conservative culture, where people prefer to keep problems within families; furthermore, if a girl complains about her parents, society might consider such an act as representing disobedience to her parents. Restrictions on female mobility may also limit opportunities to seek help (Al-Sadhan, 1994). Finally, fear of violent parental reprisals can limit disclosure (Al-Askah, 2005).

On the other hand, Saudi self-reported studies record higher levels of family violence. The results of the present study are consistent with those of Al-Zaharni (2005), who found that 50% of total participants in the study sample reported being exposed to family violence and neglect at least once in their lifetime. It should be noted that two-thirds of Al-Zaharni's

(2005) sample were male and only 34% female, which indicates that males are also exposed to high levels of family violence in Saudi Arabia. The results of the current study support the findings of numerous previous Saudi studies related to the prevalence of family violence, suggesting that the level of family violence in general and child abuse in particular are higher than the official data suggests (Al-Angari, 2004; Al-Khatib, 2005; Al-Mohaimeed, 2008; Al-Qarni, 2005; Al-Saud, 2000; Al-Tayar, 2010; Al-Zahrani, 2005).

Despite the efforts made by Saudi scholars to investigate the prevalence of family violence in the country, knowledge on the extent of family violence in Saudi Arabia is still quite limited because of an emphasis on exploratory methodologies, a reliance on Western theories to explain the causes and effects of family violence, and inconsistent findings caused by the lack of a uniform definition of family violence.

The results obtained by the current study indicate that a high rate of family violence is present in Saudi Arabia. This finding seems to be consistent with the results of international studies that have employed self-reported methods. For example, the British Crime Survey, 2008-2009, found that more than 1 in 5 women aged 16 and older reported experiencing family violence during their lifetime. The National Survey of Children's Exposure to Violence (NatSCEV) carried out another comprehensive study in 2009 to measure exposure to violence in the home, school, and community across all age groups of children from birth to age 17. This study found that more than 60 percent of the children surveyed had been directly or indirectly exposed to violence within the past year (Finkelhor, 2009).

However, comparisons of the findings of the current study with those of Western studies must be made with caution. Much of the existing international literature focuses on intimate partner abuse and child maltreatment, but the current study did not include partner abuse as a form of family violence because in Saudi culture, marriage is the only way for men and women to have a relationship. In addition, the majority of UK studies on family violence are small-scale and use a qualitative approach, while American studies are more likely to employ a large-scale, quantitative approach.

### **8.2.2 The nature of family violence**

The current study examined the types of violence that were perpetrated as well as the prevalence of the different types of violence within the family unit in Saudi Arabia. The forms of family violence are often influenced by cultural context. For example, the Human

Rights Commission of Pakistan reported that at least four women a day are burned to death by their husbands and other relatives as a result of family disputes (UNICEF, 2000).

The current study found that the most common form of family violence is physical abuse, as 49.3%<sup>24</sup> of female participants reported that they have been subjected to physical abuse at least once during their lifetime. This finding is consistent with a number of Saudi studies (Al-Angari, 2004; Al-Qarni, 2005; Al-Saud, 2000; Al-Tayar, 2010; Al-Zahrani, 2005) which also found that the most prevalent type of family violence in Saudi Arabia is physical abuse. This result was expected, because corporal punishment is widely practiced in Saudi Arabia. However, there is not much research on the extent of physical punishment within the family (Al-Eissa, 1991; Al-Zahrani, 2005). In addition, there is no consensus among scholars or government agencies regarding what behaviour constitutes family violence (Al-Qarni, 2005). Such uncertainty can lead to conflicting results.

The findings of the present study are also supported by official Saudi data on family violence. An NSHR report (2006) indicated that the most frequently reported type of family violence was psychical assaults, accounting for 65% of the reported cases from four areas—Riyadh, Makkah, Jazan, and the Eastern Province. However, this result differs from that of some published Saudi studies (Al-Fayez, 2006; Al-Khatib, 2005; Al-Mohaimeed, 2008) which imply that psychological abuse is the most prevalent form of family violence. These contradictory results might be due to the fact that the present study did not assess psychological abuse.

The physical abuse of children is also a common form of family violence in the United States. The U.S. Department of Justice (1998) estimated that somewhere between a little less than 1% and just over 5% of all children in U.S experience physical abuse (Gallup, 1995). According to a cross-cultural study, the most common form of violence within the family seems to be physical violence (Levinson, 1989).

Witnessing violence by parents toward the female's siblings<sup>25</sup> was found to be quite prevalent in the current study, where 27% of the sample reported witnessing violence against their siblings. While witnessing family violence between parents<sup>26</sup> was less prevalent, it was still reported by 9% of the participants. The Saudi studies which were reviewed earlier in this thesis did not measure witnessing family violence and paid more

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<sup>24</sup> Physical abuse is defined as being hit, beaten, kicked, or otherwise physically hurt by anyone in any way.

<sup>25</sup> Seeing your parent hit, beat up, kick, or physically hurt your brothers or sisters, not including smacking.

<sup>26</sup> Seeing your parent get pushed, slapped, hit, punched, or beaten up by your other parent.

attention to physical abuse. This alternative focus might have been chosen because physical abuse is more visible and can be more easily recognised due to the injury it causes. Thus this study would be the first Saudi study seeking to assess the prevalence of witnessing family violence.

The findings of the current study concurred with the findings of several Western studies. For instance, Straus and Gelles (1990) stated that at least 1/3 of American children every year have witnessed violence between their parents. In addition, a study of 53 women in England who experienced family violence (Radford et al., 1997) found that the majority reported that their children had witnessed the violence that occurred between parents.

Several studies also suggested that children who witness family violence are more likely to be subject to direct abuse such as physical abuse. For example, about half of all men who abuse women also abuse their children or other children who live in their homes (Appel & Holden, 1998; Straus & Gelles, 1990). According to the U.S. Department of Justice (1993), children who live in homes where family violence occurs are 1,500 times more likely to be abused than those who live in homes without violence. Witnessing family violence as a risk factor for physical abuse was not examined in the present study. However, an overlap between the different forms of abuse was reported by the participants in the current study.

In terms of exposure to neglect, the present study found that 14% of the entire sample had been subject to neglect over the course of their life. This result appeared in contrast with the findings of the Saudi national study (Al-Youssef et al., 2004), which found that neglect was the most common form of family violence, with 93% of the total sample subject to neglect during their lifetime. This inconsistency may be due to the fact that the current study was only limited to one area in Saudi, the Makkah area. Furthermore, the age group of the present sample was limited from 12 to 18 years old, whereas the Saudi national study collected data from 14 different regions across Saudi Arabia and the sample age group was from 8 up to 45 years old. Furthermore, the sample size of the current study was larger than the sample in the national study.

The current study's findings in relation to child neglect also contrasted with those of a number of Western studies such as the NSPCC study (2011), which revealed that neglect is the most prevalent type of family violence for all age groups: 5% of under 11s, 13.3% of 11-17 year olds, and 16% of 18-24 year olds have been neglected at some point in their childhoods. This discrepancy may be due to the fact that the NSACC included a larger sample and older age groups compared to the current study.



In regards to sexual abuse, the present study found that 8%<sup>27</sup> of the entire sample had been subject to sexual abuse during their lifespan. This result contradicted Al-Zahrani (2005) who found that the prevalence of sexual abuse was 22.7% in a large sample drawn from nine different cities in Saudi Arabia. The findings of the current study also differed from some Western studies, such as that of Finkelhor et al (1990), who, in their national survey of American adults, found that 27 percent of women and 16 percent of men reported having been sexually abused as children.

There are several possible explanations for this inconsistency, one being the difference in the age group of samples between these studies. While the current study was limited to young females from 12 to 18 years old, other studies collected data from an older sample and included male and female participants. Cultural context may also have had an influence on the participants, preventing some females from revealing their experiences with sexual abuse due to the fear of shame and stigma, resulting from the fact that female victims of sexual abuse usually blame themselves for what has happened to them. It should be noted that the current study and that of Al-Zahrani (2005) were the only Saudi studies that aimed to explore the extent of child sexual abuse. However, the current study had higher response rates to this question, with only 2.6 % missing data, compared to Al-Zahrani's study where 77 % of the entire sample did not answer the question related to sexual abuse.

### **8.2.3 Description of family violence perpetrators**

The present study was aimed at identifying the main perpetrators of family violence in Saudi Arabia. Contrary to expectations, brothers were found to be the most common perpetrators of family violence. In cases of physical abuse, brothers were also the most common abuser (46%). The same was true for sexual abuse, where brothers represented 46% of all perpetrators, followed by boyfriends (24%). It is possible that the girls and young women who suffered physical abuse were the same ones who were subject to sexual abuse, although this study did not investigate the link between these two forms of abuse. According to Johnson (1995), sexual abuse is often linked to physical abuse, which is often perpetrated immediately after a physical assault and is commonly accompanied by verbal violence.

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<sup>27</sup> Has anyone ever touched you or done anything with you in an immoral or unacceptable way.

These findings contradicted many Saudi studies (Al-Angari, 2004; Al -Tayar, 2010; Al-Zahrani, 2005) which have found that fathers and stepfathers are most often the perpetrators of physical abuse. The findings of the current study also differ from those of a number of Western studies (e.g., Ashley et al., 2006; Gupte, 2007; Mash & Barkely, 2007) which have found that fathers or father figures are the most common perpetrators of physical abuse.

The only explanation for this result would be that male siblings have been given authorisation by parents to discipline their female siblings. In particular, several studies suggested that the eldest male in the household was given priority in terms of supervising finances and administering discipline in the household (Al-Khayyat, 1990; Barakat, 1993; Haj-Yahia, 1995). Furthermore, when the study sample was asked to provide suggestions for preventing family violence in Saudi Arabia, 12 % of the females complained that their male siblings had been given a high level of authority by their parents to supervise them; they then stated that their brothers misused this authority given them at home by being too strict and treating their siblings harshly.

Regarding sexual abuse, the results of the current study were in agreement with the results of a number of studies, including a survey of 3,000 young people which indicated that, of the 11% who had been sexually abused, only 1% had experienced abuse within the family and in those cases, the most typical perpetrator was a brother (Cawson et al., 2000). However, the present study differs from a number of studies which concluded that the perpetrator of sexual abuse is more likely to be from outside of the family or a relative (Al-Zahrani, 2005; Creighton, 1995; Finkelhor et al., 2000). The discrepancy in the results may be due to inconsistent or imprecise definitions of sexual abuse used by these studies.

In fact, none of the previous Saudi studies identified brothers as perpetrators of sexual abuse except Al-Askah's study (2005), which found that one out of twenty girls had been sexually abused by her brother. In Saudi Arabia, sexual abuse within the family is considered to be 'incest' and is prohibited under Sharia law. In addition, there is no information about the problem of child sexual abuse available through official data, and only a few self-reported studies have tried to investigate this issue because of its sensitivity. Therefore, it is difficult to assess the extent to which brothers are common perpetrators of sexual abuse. As such, the current research is a landmark study and further studies are required to further investigate the nature of family violence and the types of perpetrators.

In cases of neglect, the current study found that fathers were the most common perpetrators, making up 50% of abusers in this category, followed by mothers, who accounted for 22%. This finding was also in contrast with many studies which found that child neglect is commonly inflicted by the mother, which may correspond with the fact that mothers tend to be primary caretakers (Starr & Wolf, 1991; Daniel & Taylor, 2004; McCoy & Keen, 2013).

This result may be due to the bias in these responses, where there is a chance that participants misinterpreted the questions, in particular those where the examples used to describe neglect included the financial aspect (e.g., your caretakers not giving enough foods, not taking to the doctor when sick), as the father is usually the person who is financially responsible for the family in Saudi culture.

#### **8.2.4 The extent of female delinquency**

The current study aimed to examine the extent of female delinquency in Saudi Arabia. Due to the sensitivity of this topic and the restrictions that have been imposed on researchers in Saudi Arabia, little is known about the basic aspects of female delinquency.

Delinquency, in the present study, refers to any acts committed by young females between the ages of 12 to 18 that go against the criminal code, or any behaviour that is a violation of the social and religious standards of Saudi society (see Chapter 1). A number of behaviours were examined in this study: property offences, misuse of drugs, bullying, burglary, skipping school, smoking cigarettes, carrying weapons, shoplifting, committing violent offences, suicide attempts, attempting to run away from home, being arrested by police, being arrested by religious police, and being detained in a correctional institution.

For the purpose of analysis, the above-mentioned delinquent acts were classified into four major categories based on the type of delinquent act:

- Violence and drug abuse offences (misuse of drugs, carrying a weapon, violent offences, suicide attempts)
- Anti-social behaviour (bullying, skipping school, smoking)
- Property offences (property offences, shoplifting, burglary)
- Delinquency or status offences (being detained a correctional institution, arrested by religious police, arrested by police)

The rate of delinquency in the study was quite high, with about half of the sample (52%) reporting that they had committed at least one delinquent act in their lifetime. Respondents were categorised as non-delinquent if they did not report any offences, and were categorised as delinquent if they had committed at least one of the 14 offences mentioned above.

The results of the study were consistent with the findings of Zazoe (2002), Al-Askah (2005), Al-Qarni (2005), and Al-Sowayan (2007), who indicated that the problem of female delinquency is wide-spread in Saudi Arabia despite the fact that official Saudi data does not support this finding.

As illustrated by the findings of the present work, there are inconsistencies between official data and the findings of self-reported studies in Saudi Arabia. This issue might exist because official records about the number of delinquent females were kept secret until 1994 (Al-Askah, 2005). In addition, no new information has been released by the government in relation to female delinquency since 2006. According to the Ministry of Social Affairs, there have been small, slow increases in the number of delinquent females. It should be noted that the number of female delinquents reported by the Ministry is limited to females who have either been detained in prison or in a correctional institution. There is no data from police records or other law enforcement agencies. In 2006, the Ministry reported that 1,180 young females were detained in correctional institutions across the country (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2006).

Although Al-Romaih (1993) did not provide evidence to support his argument, he claimed that the rate of delinquency in Saudi Arabia was higher than in neighbouring Arab countries. In addition, Reichel (2005) reported that Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates had more problems with juvenile delinquency than other nations in the Middle East.

One possible explanation for the lack of data relating to delinquency in Saudi Arabia was highlighted by Newman (2010), who noted that the extent of delinquency in Saudi Arabia is difficult to assess and measure. Newman also stated that Saudi Arabia is a country that has not always published governmental social data or statistics as public information. Rather, these data were historically considered to be state secrets and were expected to be withheld for reasons of internal security (p. 354). As a result of this secrecy, there is limited knowledge of the extent and nature of delinquency, which is one of the reasons for carrying out the present study.

Studies about male delinquency in Saudi Arabia, on the other hand, have been well established since the 1980s (Al-Qhatani, 2009; Amir, 1984; Romaih, 1985; Romaih, 1993). The results of these studies suggest that the actual rate of male delinquency in Saudi Arabia is considerably higher than the recorded rate (Al-Mady, 2000; Al-Qhatani, 2009 Al-Sadahn, 1994).

Although scholars studying male delinquency have faced similar problems related to the availability and accuracy of official data, they have been given more freedom to interview delinquent males. Al-Sowayan (2007) reported that Saudi authorities prefer to keep issues associated with females concealed and to deal with them privately. Consequently, information about the extent of the problem remains obscure.

In Western literature, self-report surveys reveal that female delinquency has increased since the 1960s (Flower, 1990); this is in line with the findings of the present study. According to Flowers (1990), both official data and self-report data shows higher rates of female delinquency in the late 1980s than in the preceding two decades. However, officially recorded rates of female delinquency have been rising steadily in countries such as Australia, England, Canada, and United States over than past 50 years (Carrington & Pereire, 2009). In Western literature, it is relatively straightforward to measure the extent of female delinquency and assess if it has increased or decreased over time. This is difficult to calculate in Saudi Arabia due to the dearth of statistics in relation to female delinquency.

In terms of the delinquents' ages, the current study found that delinquency is more prevalent in the 15-17 age group. This finding is in agreement with several Saudi studies regardless of the fact that these studies were concerned with male delinquents. For example, in Al-Qhatani's study (2009) the majority of the sample fell between the ages of 17 and over 19 years old, and 66 percent of this group were delinquents. Al-Jibri (1994) and Al-Shehri (2001) reported similar findings, claiming that 16-18 years old is the most critical phase in which young people tend to engage in offending. The present study's finding can also be supported by a number of Western self-report studies (e.g., Moffitt, 2001; Warr, 2002) which found that the peak age of delinquency among young girls was between 14-15 years old. It should be noted that peak ages may differ between countries as well as by the type of offence.

### **8.2.5 The nature of female delinquency**

The present study aimed to explore the nature of offences committed by young females in Saudi Arabia. Little is known about the types of offences Saudi girls and young women commit, either through the official data or self-reported studies in relation to female delinquency.

The current study found that offences related to violence and drugs were the most prevalent type of delinquency, reported by 35 percent of the participants. This result does not support the previous Saudi studies, whether official or self-reported. For example, immorality offences were found to be the most prevalent type of delinquency committed by young females who were detained in the correctional institutions in 2006 (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2006). The finding of the current study contradicted several self-reported Saudi studies which concerned male delinquency (e.g., Al-Mady, 2000; Al-Mutlag, 2005; Al-Qhatani, 2009; Al-Sadahn, 1994) and which found that theft was the most common type of offence committed by male offenders.

There are several possible explanations for this result. For instance 'immoral offences' were not measured in the current study. The discrepancy could also be due to the fact that most of the available studies were conducted on male samples. Furthermore, a number of studies suggested that female offending in general is less common, less frequent, and less serious (Burman, 2004; Gelb, 2010; McIvor, 2007).

The result of the current study was also inconsistent with some of the Western studies which suggested that the number of females who commit violent offences is relatively low (McIvor, 2004; East & Campbell, 2000). These studies also indicated that females are more likely to be arrested for status offences, such as running away from home, skipping school, and alcohol abuse (Chesney-Lind, 2001; Synder & Sickmund, 2006).

It is difficult to explain the result of the current study considering cultural context, but it might be related to the way in which violent offences are defined in the current study. For example committing suicide usually refers to self-harm and is not considered a violent offence in western studies, yet in the current study this act was classified as a violent offence along with drug misuse and carrying a weapon. The reason for including 'committing suicide' under the category of violent offences was because it is considered an offence under Sharia Law.

The least commonly reported delinquent behaviour was having been arrested by the religious police<sup>28</sup> due to disorderly behaviour (1%). There is therefore only limited knowledge about the prevalence of females who have been arrested by the religious police either in Saudi Arabia or in countries such as Iran where they are called the 'moral police'. The job of the religious or moral police is to enforce a strict Islamic code, such as ensuring that unmarried men and women do not mix, and that women are covered in public places.

The result of the current study suggested that females in this sample rarely came in to conflict with the law. However, the bias of self-reported methods should be considered where there is a possibility that the females did not give entirely truthful answers about their criminal record. In particular, being detained or arrested may have brought these females shame and embarrassment; therefore, they may have chosen not to reveal this event. Another reason might have been the possibility that females with criminal records did not attend schools, as has been explained by Al-Sowayan (2007); that for parents whose daughter has been detained, if they accept her back in the family after she has served her sentence the family will not allow her to leave the home. This punishment is in accordance with Saudi tradition, which says that "Women should never leave the family's home to go anywhere, except two places—either to her husband's home or to her grave."

### **8.3 Factors influencing female behavioural outcomes.**

One of the fundamental aims of this study was to test a model of female offending which examined the relationship between young female behaviour problems, risk factors, protective factors, perceived parental love, inability to discuss problems, and family violence. This investigation was limited to four behavioural outcomes: violent offences, anti-social behaviour, delinquency, and property offences. A large survey sample from female schools was employed to empirically examine this conceptual model. There are several new findings regarding the association between these factors and female behavioural outcomes.

It was suggested in the theoretical model that the following variables (risk factors, protective factors, perceived parental love, inability to discuss problems, and family violence) would demonstrate a significant relationship with female behavioural outcomes. In other words, exposure to these factors would increase or decrease the likelihood of young women developing behaviour problems.

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<sup>28</sup>Known officially as the Commission for the Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice.

While the results supported the conceptual model to some extent, only some factors had a significant relationship with particular female behavioural outcomes.

### **8.3.1 Relationship between risk factors and female behavioural outcomes**

The results of the present study show that risk factors have a significant positive direct effect on antisocial behaviour<sup>29</sup> ( $\beta = .34$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and on delinquency<sup>30</sup> ( $\beta = .21$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This result suggests that the presence of one or multiple risk factors increases the likelihood of young females committing delinquent and antisocial acts.

Risk factors in this study were limited to family and parenting factors, and were measured by five items: father had mental health problems, father drank alcohol, mother used illegal drugs, father had been incarcerated, and at least one sibling had been incarcerated. Past research has emphasised the important role that family-related variables play in predicting various adolescent behavioural problems (e.g., Hawkins et al., 1992; Kandel, 1996).

The risk factors examined in the current study have rarely been studied by Saudi scholars. Instead, most existing Saudi literature has put more emphasis on socio-demographic characteristics, such as low family income and type of residential area, as potential risk factors of delinquency (Al-Ghadyan, 2001; Al-Jibrin, 1994; Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Roushoud, 2000; Al-Said, 1997). Researchers who have included family life among these risk factors have focused only on the factors related to family structure, such as instability at home due to divorce, large families, and polygamy (Al-Jaafri, 1999; Al-Maliky, 1989; Arafa, 1990) and all have found a strong association between these factors and male offending. In addition, all four studies on female delinquency examined family structure factors, including large families, family disruption through death or divorce, and family function, such as harsh parental discipline, a preference for boys over girls, a neglectful parental attitude, and poor supervision (Al-Sowayan, 2007; Zazoe, 2002; Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Qarni, 2005).

In Western literature, the particular impact of alcoholic parents on children's behavioural outcomes is well-documented. However, no prior Saudi study has investigated family alcoholism and drug abuse as risk factors of female delinquency. The current study is the

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<sup>29</sup> Antisocial behaviour: bullying, skipping school and smoking

<sup>30</sup> Delinquency: detention in a correctional institution, arrest by religious police, arrest by police.



first Saudi study exploring the possible impact of this risk factor on female behavioural outcomes.

As aforementioned, parental alcohol and drug misuse was one of the risk factors examined in the present study. Several Western studies suggested that parental alcohol and other drug use may lead to inadequate parenting practices and poor behavioural outcomes for children (Gutman et al., 2010; Johnston & Leff, 1999; Keller et al., 2008; Lynskey et al., 2002; Sher et al., 2005; Tolan et al., 2006;). A number of studies indicated that parental drinking is the best predictor of children's problematic alcohol and drug use, and that these children exhibit a greater increase in alcohol consumption over time than adolescents without alcoholic parents (Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Brook et al., 2010; Chassin & Barrera, 1993; Van der Holst et al., 2005; Yu, 2003).

This was not the case in the present study, as no significant relationships were found between risk factors and female violent offence of drug misuse. However, in this study, females who were exposed to these risk factors were found to be more likely to have anti-social behaviour problems (bullying, skipping school and smoking). A possible explanation for this result could be the nature of Saudi culture, where alcohol is banned.<sup>31</sup> Moreover, as has been discussed in the early chapters of the thesis, Saudi females face a lack of mobility and freedom of movement. They are not allowed to leave their home without their male guardian's permission and this circumstance limits their chances of becoming involved in alcohol or drug abuse offences. In contrast, in Saudi studies dealing with male offenders (e.g., Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Shethry, 1993), the results showed that young offenders with a family history of alcoholism reported early use of alcohol compared to their peer group.

The current study demonstrated significant associations between risk factors and the increased likelihood of female delinquency. This result corresponded with numerous Western studies linking risk factors and the likelihood of delinquency, in particular those using the same risk factors that are examined by the present study (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; McCord, 1991; Rowe & Farrington, 1997). For example, the Cambridge Study in Delinquent Development (Farrington et al., 2006) found that having a convicted father, mother, brother, or sister predicted a boy's own likelihood of being convicted. Similar results were obtained in the Pittsburgh Youth Study (Loeber et al., 2008). The findings of the current study were also consistent with numerous Saudi studies (Al-Jibrin, 1994; Al-

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<sup>31</sup> Alcohol is banned in Saudi Arabia, but is still available through the black-market.

Mutlag, 2003; Al-Roushoud, 2000; Al-Shethry, 1993) which found that boys from families with a criminal history are more likely to develop delinquent behaviours. The consistency between the findings of the current study and the above-mentioned studies should be interpreted with caution, as the current study was conducted on a female sample while these studies were carried out on male samples.

The findings of the current study can be explained in the context of Saudi culture and the way that society and law enforcement agencies define delinquency. For example, risk factors in the current study included parents with mental problems, parents with alcohol and drugs misuse problems, and families with criminal history. These risk factors were highlighted by a number of Saudi scholars (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Sowayan, 2007; Zazoe, 2002) as a main reason why females run away from home, a delinquent act that puts females at risk of being detained. A female in Saudi Arabia would be arrested, detained, and labelled as a delinquent for reasons that might not be considered an offence if she were a young man in Saudi Arabia, and would not be considered as delinquent acts at all in a Western country. For instance, a young female would be arrested by the religious police if they suspected that she was accompanied by a non-related male. Mere suspicion of delinquent female behaviour can be cause for arrest. Thus running away from home is one of the most common causes of arrest (Al-Askah, 2005) and once the female is detained the stigma will always be associated with her and her entire family.

### **8.3.2 Relationship between protective factors and female behavioural outcomes**

Protective factors in the current study were significantly negatively correlated with only one outcome variable: antisocial behaviour ( $\beta = -.53, p < .05$ ). This result suggests that if protective factors are absent or weak, then the likelihood of a young female committing an antisocial behaviour offence will increase. Protective factors were measured by four items (Family recreational activities, mother's encouragement to pray, mother's concern about the female's performance at school, and father rewarding good educational performance). The findings of the current study were in agreement with a number of Saudi studies (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Mady, 2000; Al-Mutlag, 2005; Al-Qhatani, 2009; Al-Sadah, 1994) which found that young people are less likely to engage in delinquency if they participate in some recreational activities with their families.

The findings of the current study were also consistent with a number of Western studies which found that having support from a caring adult can be a protective factor for adolescents, decreasing the likelihood that they will engage in delinquent behaviours

(Benson, 1990; Dishion & Kavanagh, 2003; Hawley & DeHaan, 1996; Romer, 2003; Werner & Smith, 1982). In addition, a number of studies suggested that depending how important religion is to someone, religion can protect against many forms of negative outcomes for young people, including delinquency (Ball et al., 2003; Bridges & Moore, 2002; Clark, 1995).

### **8.3.3 Relationship with parents and female behavioural outcomes**

The present study found that perceived lack of parental love ( $\beta = -.07$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and inability to discuss problems with parents ( $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p < .05$ ) were both significantly negatively correlated with property offending.<sup>32</sup> This results suggested that the lack of parental affection and support can be linked to an increased likelihood of committing property offences. The findings of the present study are consistent with a number of studies in which a positive relationship with parents has been recognised as an important factor that is related to delinquency (Al-Askah, 2005; Al-Ghadyan, 2001; Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Roushoud, 2000; Al-Sowayan, 2007).

Having positive, loving, and supporting parent-child relationships was well-documented as a protective factor which prevented individuals from getting involved in delinquent behaviours (Hodgins et al., 2001; Mansel, 2003; Smith & Stren, 1997; Wong et al, 2010; Hodgins et al., 2001). According to control theory, “delinquent acts result when an individual’s bond to society is weak or broken” (Hirschi, 1969, p.16). Adolescents who are strongly attached to their parents are less likely to engage in delinquent activities since they do not want to disappoint their parents. Hirschi (1969) described attachment as an affective relationship that facilitates the internalisation of norms. Those with insecure attachments may lack the social bonds that would cause them to identify with the social order.

In fact, the result of the current study was supported by the findings of Al-Askah’s study (2005) that focused on the cause of delinquency in young Saudi females. Al-Askah found that lack of warmth and love among family members and parental inability to express appropriate affection toward females was significantly associated with female delinquency. The explanation provided by Al-Askah could be applied to explain the result of the current study. A female experiencing a lack of love and attention at home might search for love and support outside of the family and end up dating as a result. Dating

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<sup>32</sup>Property offending: property offences, shoplifting, burglary.

and having a relationship outside of marriage will lead this female to be arrested by the religious police and be labelled as a delinquent. Females in the current study suggested early marriage as a way to protect them from offending due to their overwhelming need for love and support.

#### **8.3.4 Relationship between Family violence and female behavioural outcomes**

The present study showed a significant negative correlation between family violence and violent offences<sup>33</sup> ( $\beta = -.10, p < .001$ ), which suggests that females who are exposed to family violence are less likely to commit violent offences. Family violence was measured by three items: parents had a physical fight in front of the female, the father hit the mother, and the father hit the female when he fought with the mother. Family violence in this section was limited to physical abuse, either direct (being exposed to) or indirect (witnessing family violence). The focus was on this type of violence because it was reported by a large proportion of the sample.

The results of the current study are inconsistent with previous Saudi Arabian studies (Al-Ghadyan, 2001; Al-Jibrin, 1994; Al-Mutlag, 2003; Al-Romaih, 1993; Al-Roushoud, 2000; Al-Sadhan, 1996). This inconsistency could be due to gender differences, as all of these studies used male samples. All the above-mentioned studies found a strong positive correlation between exposure to physical abuse or harsh parental punishment and violent offences—in particular drug misuse, alcohol drinking, and using weapons during a fight.

The results of the present study also contrasted with some Western studies. For example, some researchers found that children who were exposed to physical abuse were significantly more likely than control subjects to commit violent offences (Widom & Maxfield, 1996) as well as non-violent offences (Mersky & Reynolds, 2007). However, one group of researchers found that abused children were less likely than their non-abused siblings and peers to commit later aggressive offences (Gutierrez & Reich, 1981).

Another group of researchers found that the significant correlation between physical abuse and later violent offences was rendered insignificant when the frequency of maltreatment was added to the statistical analysis (Zingraff et al., 1993). In Widom's well-known longitudinal studies, abused children were not found to be more likely to commit delinquent property offences. However, children who experienced both abuse and neglect were significantly more likely than controls to be arrested for delinquent property offences

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<sup>33</sup>Violent offences : drug misuse, carrying a weapon, violent offences, tried to commit suicide

(Widom & Ames, 1994; Widom, 1999). Surprisingly, physically abused children were found to be more likely than sexually abused and neglected children to commit delinquent sex crimes, particularly violent sex crimes (Widom & Ames, 1994). Farrington's (1989, 2000) long-term study showed that harsh discipline and negative parental attitudes predicted both violent and persistent offending up to 32 years of age. Parental aggressiveness, which included harsh discipline and child abuse, and parental conflict, were significantly associated with children becoming violent offenders (Farrington, 1989).

The results of the current study can be interpreted within the cultural context of Saudi Arabia, where females are less likely to commit violent offences due to the cultural restriction on their mobility (see section 7.3.1 of this chapter). Furthermore, females within this cultural context always fear the consequences of their actions due to the common norms which consider females to be symbols of shame. Females also fear being subjected to more violence at home if they commit any actions which do not adhere to common social norms. Regardless, further studies would be required to fully assess the impact of cultural context on female behaviour.

#### **8.4 Latent profile of family violence**

The current study determined the rates of five different forms of family violence which females had been exposed to during their lifetime. In the present study, physical abuse and witnessing family violence by parents toward female siblings were experienced by a large proportion of the sample, compared to other types of family violence that were measured in the study (parental neglect, witnessing violence between parents, and experiencing an immoral situation). These forms of family violence were experienced by a relatively small percentage of the sample (see section 7.2.2).

The current study utilised latent class analysis to determine the number and the nature of family violence risk groups based on the endorsement of each of the five items reflecting the latent construct of family violence. The latent profile plot of family violence identified two classes. Class 1 was the substantially larger class (71% of participants) and was characterised by a lower probability of endorsing any of the family violence items. Class 2 (29%) was characterised by a higher probability of endorsing all items, particularly physical abuse and witnessing violence against siblings. This class was considered the high family violence group.

Further analysis was undertaken using logistic regression to assess the association between family violence (class 1—low risk group) and the following variables: violent offending, antisocial behaviour, delinquency, property offences, mental health problems (mother), mental health problems (father), alcohol problem (father), relationship with father, and relationship with mother. This type of statistical method has never been used in previous Saudi studies in relation to family violence and delinquency among young females. In addition, the current study is only the second Saudi study to examine the association between exposure to family violence and committing delinquent acts (Al-Qarni, 2005).

The present study found a significant negative association between class 1 membership (low risk group) and antisocial behaviour (OR = .62). These results indicate that participants who are in the low risk group of family violence (class 1) are less likely to commit antisocial acts compared to those participants in the high risk group (class 2). This finding is consistent with the work of Al-Qarni (2005) who found that females who were exposed to or witnessed family violence were more likely to commit antisocial acts. This finding also supports previous research that has shown that children exposed to family violence experience higher rates of emotional problems, which include more aggressive and antisocial behaviours, when compared to children who were not exposed to violence (Gewirtz & Edleson, n.d.).

However, the results of the current study differs from researchers, such as Rivera and Widom(1990) and Widom and White (1997), who found that abused and neglected girls showed a tendency of increased risk of arrest for violent juvenile offending. In fact, exposure to family violence was considered a major risk for delinquency, especially violent offences (Farrington, 1991; Rivera and Widom, 1990; Smith and Thornberry, 1995). Other studies have suggested a positive association between being exposed to physical abuse and committing violent offences, such as Herrera and McCloskey (2000) who found that girls with a history of physical child abuse were arrested for violent offences more frequently than boys with similar histories. This association between being exposed to physical abuse and committing violent offences is not supported by the findings of the present study, although almost half of the sample (49.3%) was exposed to physical abuse.

Furthermore, the current study found that having positive relationships with one's father (OR=1.17) and mother (OR=4.40) was significantly associated with class 1 membership. In other words, participants who indicated a good relationship with their mother were over 4 times more likely to be assigned to the low family violence group (class 1). Similarly,

participants who indicated a good relationship with their father were 1.7 times more likely to be assigned to the low family violence group (class 1).

The result of the current study supported the premise of attachment theory which argues that family violence negatively affects or disrupts the attachment between the child and the parents or caretakers, because an attachment based mostly on fear creates insecurity and a traumatic bond (Radford & Hester, 2006). This result may suggest that attachment theory can be applied to some extent in the Saudi setting, although further studies are required to assess the hypothesis of attachment theory in light of the cultural context in Saudi Arabia.

## **8.5 Summary of the Key Findings and Contributions**

The current study explored two sensitive issues—family violence and female delinquency—in Saudi Arabia. Despite its exploratory nature, this study offers some insight into the extent and nature of these two phenomena.

The result of the study provided an understanding of the extent of family violence and neglect over the lifetime of young females, which was found to be considerably prevalent in the study area. This confirms the argument of a number of Saudi studies (Al-Zahrani, 2005; Al-Angari, 2004; Al-Saud, 2000), which highlight that family violence is still underestimated, and further studies are required to assess the actual extent of the problem. In addition, the current study demonstrated in-depth details regarding the nature of family violence and its perpetrators.

One of the more significant findings that emerged from the current study, related to the perpetrators of family violence, is that brothers were found to be the most common abusers in cases of physical and sexual abuse. This finding will serve as a basis for future studies in relation to sibling abuse. The findings of the current study enhance our understanding of the factors that might place someone at a lower risk of exposure to family violence, such as having good relationships with parents.

The findings in this study provide a new understanding of the associations between risk and protective factors and female delinquency. Several risk and protective factors were examined in the current study that had never before been assessed in the Saudi context. The current results can be used to inform prevention programs that target risk factors which are likely to lead to problem outcomes for young Saudi females.

## 8.6 Limitations and Strengths of the Study

This study investigated two sensitive topics in Saudi Arabia—family violence and female delinquency—that have received little empirical consideration by Saudi scholars. This section acknowledges the study's strengths and limitations, and may help to provide suggestions for further research. The limitations identified below may limit the generalisability of the research results.

Despite the large sample, using a self-reported questionnaire as the measure of delinquency is a limitation of this study. A few studies that have examined differences between self-reported and observable adolescent behaviour have reported differences (Farrington, 2003; Elliot & Ageton, 1980). Young people may forget, exaggerate, or underreport their behaviour. This limitation might have been addressed by conducting interviews, but this was not possible due to the refusal by the Ministry of Social Affairs to grant permission to conduct interviews. Therefore, the study relied largely on quantitative data collection (though qualitative data collection was used to a limited extent) and is therefore restrictive. More qualitative data collection processes should be undertaken in the future to provide a wider perspective for the present study. For instance, the research design might employ the case study methodology or content analysis to provide a holistic picture of the given subject.

Due to the sensitive nature of the issues under investigation, as well as a culture that does not support freedom of speech and considers family violence a private matter that must be kept inside the family, some respondents may not have provided the true answer for some items while completing the questionnaires. Related to this point, it should be noted that during data collection in the classrooms, some participants mentioned verbally that they had been subjected to multiple types of family violence, but they did not note this when completing the questionnaire. This suggests that, although the number of female participants in this sample who reported family violence was high, the study may still be underreporting the actual figure. The same problem was highlighted by a number of Saudi researchers, according to Al-Shethery (1993); people often attempt to present a perfect image of their family life, as they were brought up to believe that family problems should be sorted out within the family and that sharing such information may bring shame to the family. Al-Shethery (1993) believes that such cultural values would likely make it 'not possible to obtain accurate data'. In general, 'socially desirable responding bias' is common in studies exploring sensitive issues, which refers to people's tendency to



present themselves in a positive or socially desirable way, also known as 'faking good' (Pallant, 2010).

Due to the finite time and resources available, this study was limited to one area in Saudi Arabia (Makkah city, in the western part of the country). Further empirical evaluation is needed to replicate the findings in different contexts and surroundings. In addition, this study was limited to female participants due to the gender segregation, which did not allow a female researcher to conduct research on a male sample. Further studies need to compare male and female populations.

Despite these limitations, the study also has the following strengths. This study had a large sample size (more than 400 young female participants), which provided a good statistical base from which to examine the associations between a number of factors and family violence and delinquency. To our knowledge, this is the first study using advanced statistical analysis to examine the problem of family violence and female delinquency; and structural equation modelling was used to evaluate the relationships between these variables.

In addition, a model of female offending was proposed in this study that might lay the foundation for further research on understanding risk and protective factors related to female delinquency in Saudi Arabia.

## **8.7 Recommendations and Implications**

This thesis has accomplished its aims in terms of exploring the extent and nature of family violence and female offending in Saudi society, in addition to assessing the association between exposure to family violence and female delinquent behaviour. In light of the study's findings, this section discusses several suggestions and directions for future research aimed at reducing the effects of the study's limitations.

The findings of this study have a number of implications for future practice as summarised below.

1. The current study has highlighted the paucity of research related to family violence and female delinquency. Therefore, the present study has provided an effective methodology for the study of these issues that future researches may draw upon.

2. Considering the shortcomings of previous Saudi studies in relation to female delinquency, the present study has provided a detailed theoretical understanding of the problem. Theoretical development is needed to synthesise and transcend the diverse findings from different academic disciplines on female delinquency.
3. The Saudi government should enact clear legislation that specifies punishments for the perpetrators of family violence. The Saudi Council of Ministers drafted a law in August 2013 criminalising family violence; however, according to the Human Rights Watch (2013), the law does not detail specific enforcement mechanisms to ensure prompt investigations of abuse allegations or the prosecution of those who commit violence. In my opinion as a researcher in the field of family violence and child abuse, with eight years of experience in social work practice, this law is merely ink on paper as long as those charged with upholding the law, such as judges and police officers, support cultural violence and use religious reasoning to justify family violence.
4. In terms of the availability of data reporting the extent and nature of female delinquency, the Saudi government should establish a national database providing ready access to researchers. Restrictions on such data are not limited to Saudi Arabia but are common in other developing countries as well. For instance, Maana (1992), an Algerian researcher, claimed that there is great difficulty in obtaining any data from the authorities in most developing countries. It is also interesting to note that in the past, developed countries, such as the United Kingdom and the United States, have sealed information from the public to some extent. According to Smith (1995, p. 117), the Home Office of the United Kingdom was required by the *Criminal Justice Act* to publish some data concerning female delinquency. However, this did not occur until 1994, when only some data was made accessible, revealing only part of the picture.
5. The Saudi government should cooperate more with researchers and facilitate their work by reducing the complex bureaucracy within the government sectors that can be a restrictive burden on research. The lack of clear guidelines concerning how to apply for permission to conduct a study often inhibits researchers from completing their work.
6. A wide range of potential agents of change should be considered when developing policies to address family violence. For example, collaborative, community-based

interventions may provide a greater overall reduction in family violence re-victimisation than any one intervention by itself.

7. Family violence remains a largely unidentified phenomenon. Therefore, practitioners and policy makers should ensure that when family violence victims receive legal, psychological, or other services, sustained follow-up services are provided, especially when the initial efforts of the victim may precipitate further abuse.

8. The findings of the present study have provided detailed information about family violence (type of abuse, abuser, and injuries due to family violence exposure) and such information would help to improve the prevention and intervention programs for victims and perpetrators of family violence.

## **8.8 Directions for future research**

Recommendations for future studies are summarised below:

1. The present study was limited to females due to the gender segregation policy in Saudi Arabia, which does not allow researchers to conduct studies on the opposite sex. Collaboration between male and female researchers is needed to carry out a comparative study that investigates the gender differences related to the impact of family violence on male and female siblings.
2. More in-depth studies are needed, particularly in terms of sexual abuse within the family. Such studies would be difficult to carry out, but they are sorely needed in light of the findings of the current study and those of some previous studies, which have identified some cases of sexual abuse.
3. Further research is needed from a feminist perspective to look at how the socio-cultural and political position of women in Saudi Arabia interacts with their exposure to family violence.
4. An examination of the full range of factors that contribute to family violence and re-victimisation is needed.

5. Research is needed regarding community-level differences in how family violence is viewed and how these differences may moderate the effectiveness of diverse interventions.
6. The present study found that brothers were the most common abuser, in light of the lack of studies related to sibling abuse even in the international literature, therefore more attention should be paid to the investigation of sibling abuse, in particular physical and sexual abuse.
7. The present study has highlighted a number of protective factors which may have an influence on female behaviour. A comprehensive study is needed to investigate the role of protective factors in mediating the impact of family violence on female behaviour.
8. There is a need for more in-depth studies of the relationship between risk factors and female offending.
9. The feminine aspect of female delinquency needs more analysis to investigate the relationships between social and cultural values, legislation, and the social conditions of females, in order to discover if there has been a feminisation of offending in Saudi society.
10. More research is needed to develop and adapt measurements and scales for family violence, and for female delinquency.

## **8.9 Conclusion**

The present study was carried out to explore the extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency in Saudi Arabia, and examined the risks and protective factors that may help us to understand the development of delinquent behaviour among young females. This study accomplished its aims and developed a solid understanding of the prevalence of two sensitive problems—family violence and female delinquency—within

the context of one of the most conservative cultures in the world, one in which anything related to women is difficult to investigate.

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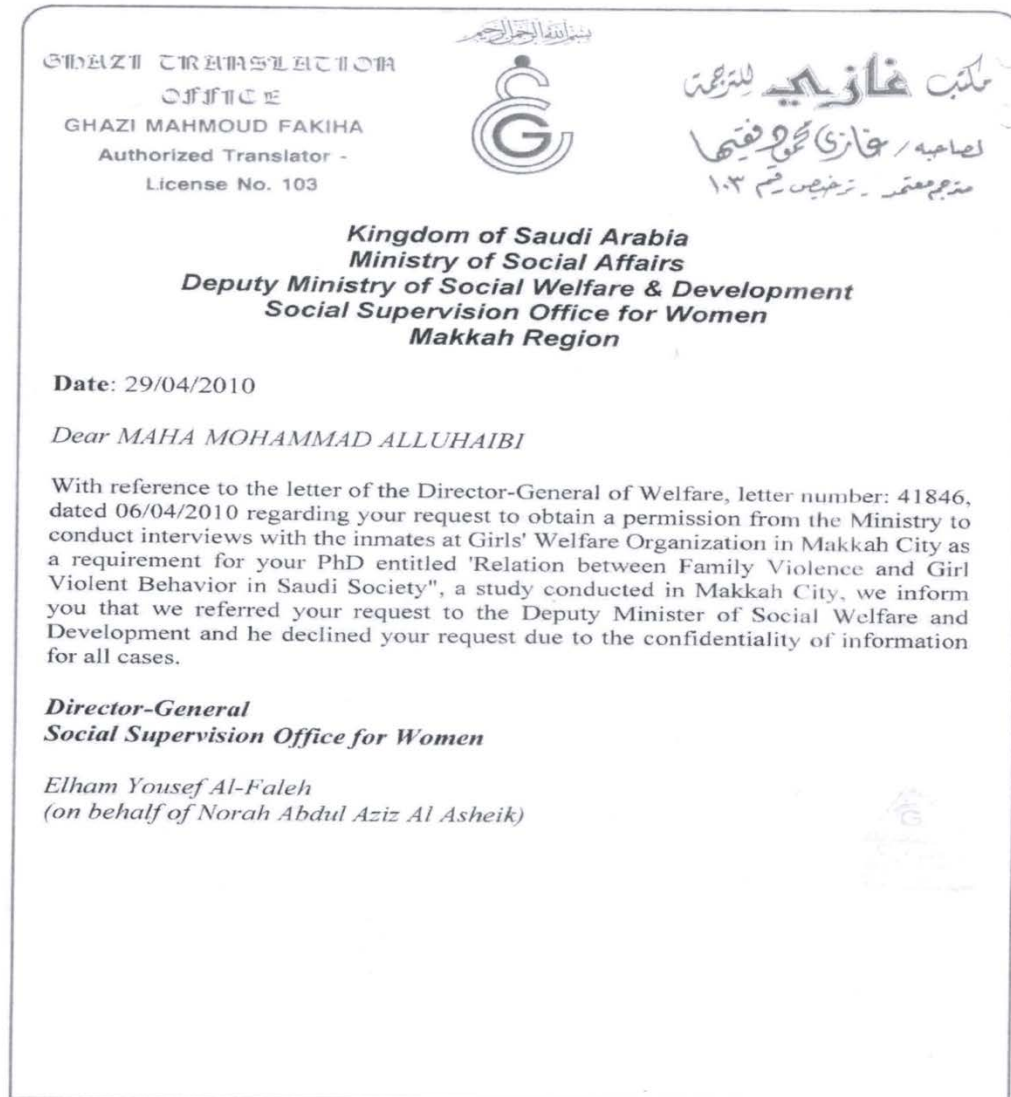
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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: Permission from the Ministry Of Education to undertake the study in schools.



<b>GHAZI TRANSLATION OFFICE</b> GHAZI MAHMOUD FAKIHA Authorized Translator - License No. 103		<b>مكتب غازي للترجمة</b> أصاحبه / غازي محمد فكيها مترجم معتمد - ترخيص رقم ١٠٣
<p>Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education General Directorate of Education ( Girls Section) at Holy Makkah. Department of Educational Planning and Development Educational Studies &amp; Researches Section</p>		
		No.: t kh/344 Date:04/10/2009
Subj.: regarding he permission for Student Maha Alluhaibi to Apply her Study at Holy Makkah City		
To : His Excellency \ Dr. Bernard Gallagher		
With due Greetings...		
<p>As you are the Supervisor of the study of the Student\ <b>MAHA MOHAMMED ALLUHABI.</b>, delegated to Huddersfield University in Britain to study for he Degree of Doctorate in the Field of Social Service , who is now preparing a research on ( the relation between the family violence and the girls deviation in the Saudi society ) . we hereby notify that we have no objection for her to apply her study in some secondary schools at Holy Makkah City on condition that the tools of her study should be appropriate to our society Traditions and Ethics.</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Thanks &amp; Regards ,,,</b></p>		
<p><b>Signed by General Director of Education ( Girls Section) at Holy Makkah.</b> Mr. \ Hamid Bin Jabir Alsulami</p>		

**APPENDIX B: The refusal's letter from the Ministry of Social Affairs to undertake the study in the Social Correctional Institution**





## APPENDIX C: Permission from the Ministry of Social Affairs to undertake the study in the Social Protection Centre

<p>GHAZI TRANSLATION OFFICE GHAZI MAHMOUD FAKIHA Authorized Translator - License No. 103</p>		<p>مكتب غازي للتأليف لصاحبه / غازي محمود فكيها مترجم معتمد - ترخيص رقم ١٠٣</p>
<p>Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Social Affairs Administrative Planning and Development Department</p>	<p>No.: 89022 Date: 07/08/2010</p>	
<p>To: His Excellency , the Director General of Social Affairs at Holy Makkah Region Head of social Shelter at the Region.</p>		
<p>With due Respect</p>		
<p>Dear Sir.,</p>		
<p>With reference to your letter No.: 7374 dated 24/07/2010 , regarding the application submitted by the Teaching staff member at Umm_ALQura University Mrs.\ MAHA MOHAMMED ALLUHAIBI. concerning her Interest to apply the theme of her study in the field of Criminology so as to prepare for earning the doctor's Degree , so she hops to get the permission to make her study on a sample of the Female inmates of social Shelter House at Jeddah City and to distribute the study forms to the Female inmates by the house supervisors without meeting the cases for Preservation of their privacies .</p>		
<p>I hereby notify that the deputy Minister of Social Affairs for Social Care and development has approved to permit the above mentioned university staff to start the performance of her study as per your System and regulations .</p>		
<p>Thanks &amp; Regards ,,,</p>		
<p>Signed by Deputy Director of Administrative Planning and Development Department Khalid Jamaan Saad</p>		

مركز العريف النجدي - بن عبد الله عريف (السجين سابقاً) - دور (٢) مكتب ٥٩ - هاتف ٥٤٢٣٢١٦ ص.ب: ٨٣٧٧ - مكة المكرمة - المملكة العربية السعودية  
TEL.(02) 5423216 P.O.BOX 8377 MAKKAH AL- MUKARRAMAH - KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

## APPENDIX D: Participant information sheet (Social Protection Centre).

### Title of Project:

**The extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency: an empirical investigation in a Saudi Arabian sample**

Dear Participant,

My name is Maha Alluhaibi. I am undertaking a PhD at the University of Huddersfield, in the UK. I am interested in the possible effects of childhood experiences on adulthood, particularly the link between experiencing or witnessing family violence in childhood and later offending.

You are being invited to take part in this study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, however, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully.

#### - What will you have to do if you take part in this study?

If you agree to take part, I will ask you to answer some questions. There are no right or wrong answers. I just want to hear about your opinions and your experiences. Answering the questionnaire should take about an hour. Please note that some of the questions will relate to your personal history and experiences before and after you were resident in the social protection centre.

#### - Do you have to take part?

Your participation in this interview is completely voluntary and you will not receive any compensation for your time. You may refuse to participate in this interview or discontinue participation at any time without penalty. This will not affect your current prison sentence or your chances of parole.

#### - If you agree to take part what happens to what you say?

All the information you give to me will be confidential and used for the purposes of this study only. The data will be collected and stored in accordance with the UK Data Protection Act 1998 and will be disposed of in a secure manner. The information will be used in a way that will not allow you to be identified individually. The protection centre authorities will not be able to link any information provided to you. However, we must inform management if:

- You disclose details of any potential offence within this centre, which could lead to punishment for anyone. So, you should be careful about mentioning anyone's name during this discussion.
- Something you have said leads us to believe that either your health and safety, or the health and safety of others around you, is at immediate risk.

In this centre, we will inform a member of the protection centre staff, who may take the matter further.

#### - What do you do now?

Think about the information on this sheet, and ask me if you are not sure about anything. If you agree to take part, sign the consent form. The consent form will not be used to identify you. It will be filed separately from all other information. If after the discussion you want any more information about the study tell the social worker who will then contact me.

If you feel upset during or after the discussion and need help dealing with your feelings, it is very important that you talk to someone right away. The contact details for the person to talk to are:

**Name:** Amal Al-jasem (Social worker in the Social Protection Centre) she will be able to help you to get access to the support unit you need either from inside or outside the centre.

Thank you for your cooperation.  
Maha Alluhaibi



## **APPENDIX E: Participant information sheet (Schools).**

### **Title of Project:**

**The extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency: an empirical investigation in a Saudi Arabian sample**

Dear Student,

My name is Maha Alluhaibi. I am undertaking a PhD at the University of Huddersfield, in the UK. I am interested in the possible effects of childhood experiences on adulthood, particularly the link between experiencing or witnessing family violence in childhood and later offending.

You are being invited to take part in this study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, however, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully.

### **What will you have to do if you take part in this study?**

If you agree to take part, I will ask you to complete a questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers. I just want to hear about your opinions and your experiences. Answering the questionnaire should take about an hour. Please note that some of the questions will relate to your personal history and your experiences in your family life.

### **Do you have to take part?**

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you will not receive any compensation for your time. You may refuse to participate in this questionnaire or discontinue participation at any time without penalty.

### **If you agree to take part what happens to what you say?**

All the information you give to me will be confidential and used for the purposes of this study only. The data will be collected and stored in accordance with the UK Data Protection Act 1998 and will be disposed of in a secure manner. The information will be used in a way that will not allow you to be identified individually. The researcher will not inform the school authorities by any information provided by you. However, we must inform management if:

### **What do you do now?**

Think about the information on this sheet, and ask me if you are if you not sure about anything. If you agree to take part, sign the consent form. The consent form will not be used to identify you. It will be filled out separately from all other information. If after the discussion you want any more information about the study, tell the social worker in your school who will then contact me.

If you feel upset during or after the discussion and need help dealing with your feelings, it is very important that you talk to someone right away.

The contact details for the person you talk to are:

The Social and Psychology Support Unit in the Ministry of Education, Miss Eman Al-Ahmady.  
Tel: 0503593765.

Thank you for your cooperation.  
Maha Alluhaibi

## APPENDIX F: Consent form (Social Protection Centre).

### Consent form

#### Title of Project:

**The extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency: an empirical investigation in a Saudi Arabian sample**

I understand that:

- My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without penalty.
- Participation involves being interviewed by a researcher from the University of Huddersfield. The interview will last approximately 60-75 minutes. Notes will be written during the interview. An audio tape of the interview and subsequent transcript will be made. However, I have the right to refuse or accept the recording of my interview, and that this will not affect my participation in this study in any way.
- The researcher will not identify me by name in any reports using information obtained from this interview, and my confidentiality, as a participant in this study, will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.
- This research study has been reviewed and approved by the University of Huddersfield.
- I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep. You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that you have read the information provided above and have voluntarily decided to participate.

Signature of Participant ..... Date .....

## APPENDIX G: Consent form (Schools).

### Consent form

#### Title of Project:

**The extent and nature of family violence and female delinquency: an empirical investigation in a Saudi Arabian sample**



I understand that:

- My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without penalty.
- Completing the questionnaire will take approximately 40 minutes.
- The researcher will not identify me by name in any reports using information obtained from this questionnaire, and my confidentiality, as a participant in this study, will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.
- This research study has been reviewed and approved by the University of Huddersfield.
- I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep. You are making a decision whether or not to be participate. Your signature indicates that you have read the information provided above and have voluntarily decided to participate.

Signature of Participant ..... Date .....

**APPENDIX H: Information sheet about the local agencies provide help and support for the victim of family violence (schools sample).**

 *For you please take it home* 

Please accept my thanks for your participation in this study. We hope it will help us to understand better some of the effects that childhood experiences have in adulthood. If you would like to know more about my research or would you like to know about the general finding from the survey when it is ready, please feel free to contact me by email.

Maha Alluhaibi ([u0874281@hud.ac.uk](mailto:u0874281@hud.ac.uk)).

Once more, please accept my thanks for your help.

**List of local agencies which provide help and support for the victims of family violence:**

- Help line number (1919)
- The General Directorate of Social Protection  
Tel (+96614738002) or by E-mail ([GDSP@mosa.gov.sa](mailto:GDSP@mosa.gov.sa))
- The National Family Safety program  
Tel (012520088)
- The National Society for Human Rights  
Tel (012102223).

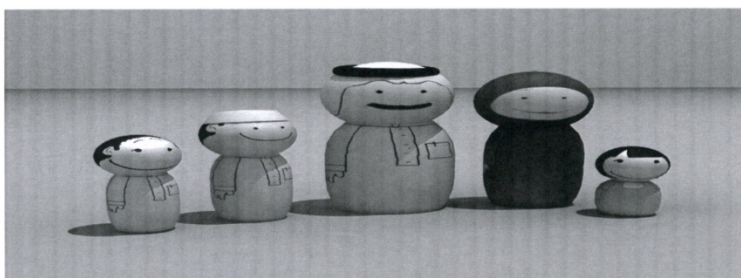
## APPENDIX I : Questionnaire (English version).



In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful



### *Questionnaire about family life in Saudi society*



#### Researcher only

Questionnaire number.....

Date questionnaire completed.....

School name.....

May 2011/ version 4

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Dear Student,

***Please read these important points about this questionnaire before you begin:***

- Do not write your name, phone number, or any other identifying information on the questionnaire.
- The information you are providing is confidential, and none of your answers will be reported to any of the staff here or to any other authorities.
- There are no right or wrong answers; we are simply interested in your opinions.
- I am hoping that your answer to each question will be complete and comprehensive. Your cooperation in this is highly appreciated.

## About you

*(Please put a tick whichever answer is applicable)*

1. How old are you? .....Years.
2. What is your nationality?
  - ☐ Saudi
  - ☐ Non-Saudi (please specify.....)
3. What is your ethnic group?
  - ☐ Arab
  - ☐ Asian
  - ☐ African
  - ☐ Other (please specify .....
4. What is your current marital status?
  - ☐ Single
  - ☐ Engaged
  - ☐ Married
  - ☐ Married but separated
  - ☐ Divorced
  - ☐ Widow
- 4a. Do you have any "disability, illness, medical condition or special need?"
  - ☐ Yes (please specify.....)
  - ☐ No
5. If you are, or have been, married at what age did you get married for the first time? .....Years.
6. How old was your first husband at that time? .....Years.
7. Did you choose your first husband by yourself?
  - ☐ By myself
  - ☐ Parents decided
  - ☐ In consultation with your parents
  - ☐ Other (please specify.....)
8. Do you have children?
  - ☐ Yes
  - ☐ No (skip to Q 11)
9. If your answer is yes, how many children do you have?  
Numbers of children.....
10. Are your children living with you?
  - ☐ All of them living with me
  - ☐ Some of them living with me
  - ☐ None of them living with me



11. In what type of area is your current residence located?

- ☐ Urban
- ☐ Semi-rural
- ☐ Rural

12. What type of family home do you currently live in?

- ☐ Villa
- ☐ flat
- ☐ Old housing
- ☐ Aluminium housing
- ☐ Other (please specify).....

13. What is the size of your home?

- ☐ 1-2 bedrooms
- ☐ 3-4 bedrooms
- ☐ More than 5 bedrooms

14. Do you have your own room?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

### About School

1. What is your educational level?

- ☐ Intermediate level.
- ☐ Secondary level.

2. In general, how would you describe your academic performance at school?

- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Good
- ☐ In between
- ☐ Bad
- ☐ Very Bad

3. Have you ever repeated an academic year?

- ☐ Yes (Go to Q 3a)
- ☐ No (Go to Q 4)

3a. Why did you have to repeat the academic year?

.....

.....

4. Have you ever dropped out of the school?

- ☐ Yes (Go to Q 4a & b)
- ☐ No

4a. For how long did you drop out of school? (Please answer in days, Weeks, months or years)

.....

4b. What was your reason for dropping out of school?

.....

.....

.....



### **About your birth parents and your family**

1. Are your birth parents alive?

- ☐ Both are alive      ☐ Father only  
☐ Mother only      ☐ Neither is alive

2. If one or both of your birth parents are alive, how old are your parents (Approximately)?

Father age.....  
☐ Father not alive  
Mother age.....  
☐ Mother not alive

3. What is your birth parents' current marital status?

- ☐ Married  
☐ Separated  
☐ Divorced  
☐ Mother living/Father deceased  
☐ Father living/Mother deceased  
☐ Other (explain).....

4. If your birth father has other wives, how many other stepmothers do you have?

- ☐ One      ☐ two  
☐ Three      ☐ four wives  
☐ No one

5. Who do you live with at the moment, including servants? (Tick all that apply, and please indicate how many of each of these groups of people lives with you)

#### People living with you at the moments

- ☐ Birth-father  
☐ Birth-mother  
☐ Sibling brothers  
☐ Non-sibling brothers  
☐ Sibling sisters  
☐ Non-sibling sisters  
☐ Grand mother  
☐ Grand father  
☐ Aunt  
☐ Uncle  
☐ Servants  
☐ Other (specify)

#### Numbers

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**About your Parents educational and economic level**

1. What is the highest educational level that each of your birth parents has reached?

Education level	
Father ✓	Mother ✓
<input type="checkbox"/> Illiterate. <input type="checkbox"/> Primary level <input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate level <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary level <input type="checkbox"/> College <input type="checkbox"/> Higher education	<input type="checkbox"/> Illiterate. <input type="checkbox"/> Primary level <input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate level <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary level <input type="checkbox"/> College <input type="checkbox"/> Higher education

2. Are each of your birth parents employed?

Father ✓	Mother ✓
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes (his occupation.....) <input type="checkbox"/> No (his last occupation.....)	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes (her occupation.....) <input type="checkbox"/> No (her last occupation.....)

3. If your parents are not working at the moments what is the reason for that?

Father ✓	Mother ✓
<input type="checkbox"/> he is ill <input type="checkbox"/> he is retired <input type="checkbox"/> Other reasons (specify ..... .....	<input type="checkbox"/> she is ill <input type="checkbox"/> she is retired <input type="checkbox"/> Other reasons (specify ..... .....

4. What is your birth parent's monthly income from all sources?

Monthly Income	Father ✓	Mother ✓
less than 2900 SR		
2900-3900 SR		
4000-5900 SR		
6000-7900 SR		
More than 7900 SR		
I do not know		

5. Does your family receive any additional income?

☐ Yes

(For example, social welfare benefits, charities).

☐ No

### Family relationships

1. In general, how good is your relationship with your family members?

If you have more than one brother or sister, you can tick as many of the boxes 1-5 as you wish. And if you feel a question does not apply to you, you can tick the box (✓) that says "Not applicable".

Relationship	Nature of relationship					
	1. Very good	2. Good	3. In between	4. Not very good	5. Not very good at all	6. Not applicable
With father						
With mother						
With stepfather						
With stepmother						
With sibling brothers						
With non-sibling brother						
With sibling sisters						
With non-sibling sister						

2. Please give a brief description of how you get on with the different members of your family?

.....

.....

.....

.....

### Socialization

1. Thinking about when you had done something wrong in your childhood. Which of the following ways were you treated?  
**Tick all that apply**

- ☐ It was explained to me why what I had done was wrong.
- ☐ I was given something to distract me from what I was doing which was wrong.
- ☐ Grounded/ stopped from going out or privileges stopped.
- ☐ Sent to room.
- ☐ Other (specify).....

2. Now thinking more generally, which of the following ways were you treated when you were a child? **(Tick all that apply)**

- ☐ Made to feel embarrassed or humiliated.
- ☐ Shouted at or screamed at.
- ☐ Threatened with smacking, though not actually smacked
- ☐ Sworn at.
- ☐ Called stupid or lazy or some similar name
- ☐ Threatened with being sent away or thrown out of the house/ school/ club.
- ☐ Other (specify) .....
- ☐ None of the above.

3. If you experienced any of the forms of treatment listed in question 2, how often did you experience these things during the last year?

.....times

### Family life

These are questions about some things that might have happened during your childhood. Your "Childhood" begins when you are born and continues through age 17 years. It might help to take a minute and think about the different people who took care of you during your childhood. Try your best to think about your entire childhood as you answer these questions. Please put a tick (✓) in the box that best describes your experience.

(✓)

	When I Growing Up	Always	often	sometimes	seldom	never	Not applicable
1	My <b>parents</b> have had physical fight in front of me						
2	My <b>father</b> hit my mother during arguments						
3	When my <b>father</b> fought with my mother he hit me as well.						
4	My <b>mother</b> hit me.						
5	My <b>brother</b> hit me.						
6	My <b>mother</b> wanted to divorce my father but she was scared that my father might stop her seeing her children.						
7	The <b>housekeeper</b> looked after me more than my mother.						
8	My <b>father</b> spent more time with his other wives than my mother.						
9	My <b>mother</b> loved my brothers (male siblings) more than me.						
10	My <b>father</b> loved my brothers (male siblings) more than me.						
11	I could not tell my <b>mother</b> about my problems.						
12	I could not tell my <b>father</b> about my problems.						
13	<b>Someone</b> in my family called me unpleasant things like 'stupid', 'lazy', or 'ugly'. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Please specify who they were (for example, father, mother, brother... etc).....</li> </ul>						

### ***Experience of Violence and neglect***

These are questions about some things that might have happened during your childhood. It might help to take a minute and think about the different people who took care of you during your childhood. Try your best to think about your entire childhood as you answer these questions. Please put (✓) where you think it describes your experience. The questionnaire is completely confidential and anonymous.

1. Have you ever been hit, beaten, kicked or physically hurt by anyone in anyway?

- ☐ Yes (Go to Q 1a)  
☐ No (skip to Q 3)

1a. If you ever had been hit by anyone, who did that? (Tick all that apply)

- ☐ A member of my family (Go to Q2)  
☐ Someone outside my family (skip to Q 3)

2. If you have been hit by someone in your family, who did that the last time this happened? (Tick all that apply)

- ☐ Father  
☐ Mother  
☐ Brother  
☐ Sister  
☐ Other (specify).....  
.....

2a. How many times have you been hit by a family members in the last year?

.....times

2b. How serious have the injuries been due to the physical hurt you been experienced the last time that happened to you?

- ☐ Small bruise, scrape, or cut.  
☐ Large bruise, major cut, or black eye.  
☐ Sprain, broken bone, or broken teeth.  
☐ Injury inside your body.  
☐ Knocked-out or hit unconscious.  
☐ Other (specify).....  
.....

3. (At any time in your life before you were 18 years), did you **SEE** your parent get pushed, slapped, hit, punched, or beaten up by your other parent?

- ☐ Yes (Go to Q 3a)  
☐ No (Skip to Q 4)

3a. How many times did this happen to you in the last year?

.....times

4. At any time in your life before you were 18 years, did you **SEE** your parent hit, beat up, kick, or physically hurt your brothers or sisters, not including smacking?

- ☐ Yes (Go to Q 4a)  
☐ No (Skip to Q 5)

4a. How many times did this happen to you in the last year?

.....times



**5. At any time in your life, were you neglected?** When someone is neglected, it means that the grown-ups in their life didn't take care of them the way they should. They might for example not get enough food, or take them to the doctor when they are ill.

**5a.** If you ever had been neglected by anyone, who did that? (Tick all that apply)

**5b.** If you have been neglected by someone in your family, who did that **in the last time this happened?** (Tick all that apply)

**5c.** How many times did this happen to you **in the last year?**

**5d.** Did you get scared or sick or hurt by what happened? (Tick all that apply)

**6.** Has anyone ever touched you or done anything with you in an immoral or unacceptable way?

**6a.** If you answered **Yes** to question 6, who were the people that did that **the last time this happened?**

**6b.** Could you please describe what happened the last time this immoral or unacceptable thing happened to you?

**7.** Is there any other issue you want to tell me about, for example, any kind of violence against you or any violence you witnessed inside your home, please give a brief description)

- ☐ Yes (Go to Q 5a)
- ☐ No (skip to Q 6)

- ☐ A member of my family (Go to Q 5b, c and d)
- ☐ Someone outside my family (skip to Q 6)

- ☐ Father
- ☐ Mother
- ☐ Brother
- ☐ Sister
- ☐ Other
- (specify.....
- .....

.....times

- ☐ Scared
- ☐ Sick
- ☐ Hurt
- ☐ None of these

- ☐ Yes (Go to Q 6a and 6 b)
- ☐ No (skip to Q 7)

- ☐ Father
- ☐ Mother
- ☐ Brother
- ☐ Sister
- ☐ Other
- (specify.....
- .....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

### **Handling your feelings**

1. If you have been exposed or have witnessed family violence, how has it affected you? (For example effects on your behaviour or your feelings, led to depression, or self-harm)

.....  
.....  
.....

2. If you have been exposed to or have witnessed family violence, how have you tried to cope with it? For example spoke to friends, run away from home or sought help from social welfare agencies).

.....  
.....  
.....

3. Do you know about the local agencies that provide help and support for the victims of family violence? (Please write down these agencies)

.....  
.....

4. Have you ever been referred to any of these agencies?

.....  
.....

5. If your answer is YES to Q 5, please specify which agency you were referred to?

.....  
.....

6. What did you think of the way these agencies were with you?

.....  
.....  
.....



### **Juvenile History**

1. These questions are about some things that you might have done. Tell me whether (you have done-/you did) any of the following things. Remember all your answers are confidential, so please be as honest as you can. **Please put a tick (✓) in the box that you think most nearly applies to you.**

Statement	Yes	No	Questions	
			-How many times that happened in the last year?	-Your age in the last time that happened?
<b>Have you ever....</b>				
1. On purpose (broken, damaged or destroyed/ break, damage or destroy) something that belonged to someone else .				
2. (Taken/Take) an illegal drug (e.g. cannabis).				
3. (Picked/Pick) on or (bullied/bully) someone				
4. (Stolen/Steal) something.				
5. (Skipped/Skip) school without permission				
6. (Smoked/Smoke) cigarettes.				
7. (Carried/Carry) a weapon with you such as knife or stick etc.				
8. (Avoided/Avoid) paying for things such as at the shopping mall.				
9. Hurt someone badly enough to need bandages or care from a doctor.				
10. Tried to commit suicide. -What was the reason in the last time? .....				
11. Ran away from home -What was the reason in the last time? ..... -For how long? .....				
12. Been detained in a correctional institution. -What was the reason in the last time? .....				
13. Been arrested by the religious police. -What was the reason in the last time? .....				
14. Been arrested by police. -What was the reason in the last time? .....				
15. If there is anything else you have done that is you should not have done, then please write it here and complete the last two boxes ?..... ..... .....				

### Risk and protective factors

1. Please put (✓) where you think it describe your experience.

✓

	Statement	YES	NO
1	My <b>mother</b> has had mental health problems		
2	My <b>father</b> has had mental health problems.		
3	My <b>father</b> has drunk alcohol.		
4	My <b>mother</b> has drunk alcohol		
5	My <b>father</b> used illegal drugs.		
6	My <b>mother</b> used illegal drugs.		
7	My <b>father</b> had been jailed. -What was the reason he was in prison the last time? ..... - Who took care of you while he was in the jail the last time? .....		
8	My <b>mother</b> had been jailed. - What was the reason she was in prison the last time? ..... - Who took care of you while he was in the jail the last time? .....		
9	One or more of my <b>siblings</b> had been jailed. Who (for example brother, sister...)? ..... What was the reason he/she was in prison the last time? .....		
10	On the weekend <b>members of my family</b> have done recreational activities together.		
11	My <b>father</b> has encouraged me to pray		
12	My <b>mother</b> encouraged me to pray		
13	My <b>father</b> has encouraged me to study.		
14	My <b>mother</b> has encouraged me to study.		

✓

	Statement	YES	NO
15	My <b>father</b> has asked about my performance at school.		
16	My <b>mother</b> has asked about my performance at school.		
17	My <b>father</b> rewarded me if I did well in my studies (for example, with money, trip..etc)		
18	My <b>mother</b> had rewarded me for doing in my studies (for example, with money, trip...etc)		
19	My <b>relatives</b> have helped me when I have had problems.		
20	<b>My teacher(s)</b> have praised me when I work hard in school.		
21	<b>The school</b> has let <b>my parents</b> know when I have done something well.		
22	My <b>neighbours</b> have helped me when I have had problems.		
23	My <b>neighbours</b> have noticed when I have done a good job and let me know.		
24	I have heard about some <b>crimes</b> that happened in my <b>neighbourhood</b> .		
25	One or some of my <b>friends</b> have been jailed.		
26	I have <b>one or more</b> close <b>friends</b> .		

2. In your opinion what is the best way to prevent family violence in Saudi society?

.....

.....

.....


3. In your opinion what is the best way to prevent Saudi females from offending?

.....


.....

.....

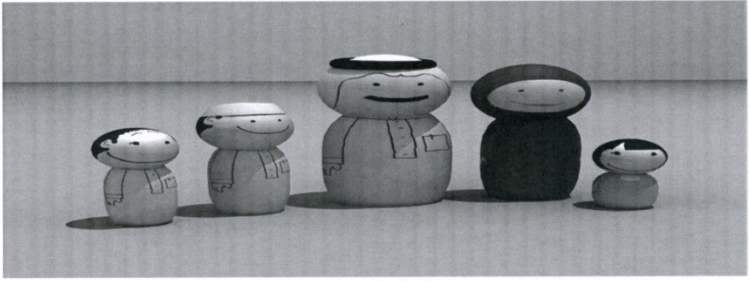
**Thank you for your cooperation.**



بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم



# استبيان عن الحياة الأسرية في المجتمع السعودي



يعبأ من قبل الباحثة :

رقم الاستبيان.....

تاريخ اكمال الاستبيان.....

اسم المؤسسة.....

May 2011/ version 4

أختي العزيزة

الرجاء قراءة هذه التعليمات الهامة قبل البدء في تعبئة هذا الأسنبيان :

- الرجاء عدم كتابة اسمك , او رقم هاتفك او أي معلومات أخرى تشير الى هويتك .
- المعلومات التي تقدمينها سوف تعامل بسرية تامة , ولن يتم اطلاق أي احد عليها سواء داخل المؤسسة أو أي جهة حكومية أخرى وسوف تستخدم فقط لخدمة هذا البحث .
- لا توجد اجابة صحيحة او خاطئة , نحن فقط مهتمون بمعرفة رأيك .
- أخيرا , أرجو منك قراءة الأسئلة بعناية والحرص على اجابة الأسئلة بشكل كامل ما أمكن . شاكرا ومقدرة حسن تعاونك .

أختك الباحثة .

مها اللهيبي .

طالبة دكتوراة بجامعة هدرزفيلد , المملكة المتحدة.

## معلومات عامة عنك

(الرجاء وضع علامة ✓ على الإجابة التي تريحها مناسبة.)

1. كم عمرك ؟ ..... سنة
2. ماهي جنسيتك ؟ ☐ سعودية ☐ غير سعودية ( يرجى التوضيح ..... )
3. كيف تصفين نفسك من ناحية العرق ؟  
☐ عربية ☐ آسيوية ☐ أفريقية ☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح .....)
4. هل أنت من ذوي الإحتياجات الخاصة أو لديك أي إعاقات أو مشاكل صحية مزمنة ؟  
☐ نعم ( يرجى التوضيح ..... ) ☐ لا
5. ماهي حالتك الإجتماعية حاليا ؟  
☐ عزباء ☐ مخطوبة ☐ متزوجة ☐ متزوجة لكن منفصلة عن زوجي ☐ مطلقة ☐ أرملة
6. إذا كنت متزوجة أو سبق لك الزواج ،كم كان عمرك عندما تزوجتي للمرة الأولى ؟  
..... سنة
7. كم كان عمر زوجك في ذلك الوقت ؟ ..... سنة
8. هل اخترتي زوجك بنفسك ؟  
☐ نعم بنفسي ☐ والديّ قرارا بالنيابة عني ☐ بالتشاور مع والديّ ☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح .....)
9. هل لديك أطفال ؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا
10. إذا كانت إجابتك نعم ، فكم لديك من الأطفال ؟ ..... طفل/أطفال
11. هل يعيش أطفالك معك حاليا ؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا
12. إذا كانت إجابتك لا ، فيرجى التوضيح مع من يعيش أطفالك حاليا ؟  
.....
13. ماهي طبيعة المنطقة التي يقع بها مقر سكنك ( آخر منزل كنت تسكنين فيه قبل انتقالك للمؤسسة ) ؟  
☐ منطقة حضرية ☐ منطقة ريفية ☐ منطقة قروية
14. ماهو نوع المنزل الذي كنت تسكنين فيه قبل انتقالك للمؤسسة ؟  
☐ فيلا ☐ شقة ☐ منزل شعبي ☐ بيت صفيح/ صندقة ☐ أخرى ( يرجى التوضيح ..... )
15. كم عدد غرف المنزل الذي كنت تسكنين فيه قبل انتقالك للمؤسسة ؟  
☐ 2-1 غرف نوم ☐ 3-4 غرف نوم ☐ 5 غرف نوم فأكثر
16. هل كان لديك غرفة خاصة بك في المنزل قبل انتقالك الى المؤسسة ؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

## معلومات عن مدرستك

1. ماهو مستواك التعليمي ؟ ☐ المرحلة المتوسطة ☐ المرحلة الثانوية ☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح.....)

2. يصفة عامة ، كيف تصفين مستواك التحصيلي في المدرسة ؟

☐ ممتاز ☐ جيد جدا ☐ جيد ☐ مقبول ☐ ضعيف

3أ. هل سبق لك أن أعدت السنة الدراسية ؟

☐ نعم ( اجيبي على السؤال 3ب ) ☐ لا ( انتقلي الى السؤال 4 )

3ب. ماهي أسباب إعادتك للسنة الدراسية ؟

.....  
.....

4أ. هل سبق لك الإنقطاع عن المدرسة ؟

☐ نعم ( اجيبي على السؤالين 4ب و 4ج ) ☐ لا

4ب. كم دام هذا الإنقطاع في اخر مرة انقطعتي فيها عن المدرسة ؟

..... يوم ، ..... أسبوع ، ..... شهر ، ..... سنة

4ج. اذكرى الأسباب التي أدت الى انقطاعك عن المدرسة في المرة الأخيرة ؟

.....  
.....



## معلومات عن الوالدين والأسرة

1. هل والدك على قيد الحياة ؟  
☐ الوالدين على قيد الحياة    ☐ الأب فقط    ☐ الأم فقط    ☐ الوالدين متوفيان
2. إذا كان أحد والدك أو كلاهما على قيد الحياة ، فكم يبلغان من العمر تقريبا ؟  
 عمر الأب..... ☐ الأب متوفى    ☐ عمر الأم..... ☐ الأم متوفاة
3. ماهي الحالة الإجتماعية لوالدك حاليا ؟  
☐ متزوجان    ☐ منفصلان    ☐ مطلقان    ☐ الأم على قيد الحياة و الأب متوفى  
☐ الأب على قيد الحياة و الأم متوفاة    ☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح.....)
4. هل لا يزال والداك متزوجا من والدتك ؟  
☐ نعم    ☐ لا    ☐ لا ينطبق
5. إذا كان والداك متزوجا أكثر من زوجة فكم عدد زوجات والداك ؟  
☐ واحدة    ☐ اثنتان    ☐ ثلاث    ☐ أربع زوجات    ☐ لا احد
6. من هي الزوجة (الزوجات) التي ( اللاتي) يعشن مع والداك حاليا ؟  
☐ أمك فقط    ☐ أمك وزوجة أبيك    ☐ زوجة أبيك فقط    ☐ لا أحد    ☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح.....)
7. مع من كنت تعيشين قبل انتقالك للسكن في المؤسسة ؟  
☐ مع والداك    ☐ مع أمك    ☐ مع والداك وزوجة والداك  
☐ مع أمك وزوجة أبيك    ☐ اخرون (يرجى التوضيح.....)
8. قبل انتقالك للمؤسسة ، هل كان أحد أقاربك يسكن معكم في نفس المنزل ؟  
☐ الجد أو الجدة    ☐ العم أو العمة    ☐ الخال أو الخالة    ☐ اخرون (يرجى التوضيح.....)
9. كم لديك من الأخوة و الأخوات ؟  
☐ عدد الأخوة الذكور الأشقاء ..... ☐ عدد الأخوة الذكور غير الأشقاء .....  
☐ عدد الأخوات الشقيقات ..... ☐ عدد الأخوات غير الشقيقات .....



10. منذ متى انتقلتني للسكن في المؤسسة ؟

11. هل يعيش أحد من أقاربك أو عائلتك معك في المؤسسة ؟ (يرجى التوضيح دون ذكر اسماء)

## المستوى الاجتماعي و الإقتصادي للوالدين

(الرجاء وضع علامة ✓ على الإجابة التي تزينها مناسبة).

✓

1. ماهو المستوى التعليمي لوالديك ؟

المستوى التعليمي	الأب	الأم
- لا يقرأ و لا يكتب \ لا تقرأ أو تكتب		
- تعليم ابتدائي		
- تعليم متوسط		
- تعليم ثانوي		
- جامعي		
- فوق الجامعي (ماجستير أو دكتوراة)		

2. هل والداك يعملان ؟

الأب	الأم
<input type="checkbox"/> نعم (مسمى الوظيفة.....)	<input type="checkbox"/> نعم (مسمى الوظيفة.....)
<input type="checkbox"/> لا (وظيفته السابقة.....)	<input type="checkbox"/> لا (وظيفتها السابقة.....)

3. ماهو مقدار الدخل الشهري لوالدايك تقريبا ؟

✓

مقدار الدخل الشهري	الأب	الأم
- أقل من ألفين ريال سعودي .		
- ما بين 2900 – 3900 ريال سعودي		
- ما بين 4000-5900 ريال سعودي		
- ما بين 6000-7900 ريال سعودي		
- 7900 ريال سعودي فأكثر		
- لا أعرف		

4. من وجهة نظرك هل دخل الأسرة المادي كافي ؟

☐ نعم (انتقلي إلى السؤال رقم 6) ☐ لا (اجيبي على السؤال رقم 15)

15. هل لدى أسرته أي دخل إضافي (مثلا إعانة من الضمان الاجتماعي أو من الجمعيات الخيرية) ؟

☐ نعم (اجيبي على السؤال رقم 5ب) ☐ لا (انتقلي إلى السؤال رقم 6)

5ب. إذا اجبتي بنعم على سؤال 15، يرجى تحديد مصدر ومقدار هذا الدخل الإضافي؟

مصدر الدخل	مقدار الدخل شهريا
.....	.....
.....	.....

16. هل يعطيك أهلك مصروفا شخصيا (مصروف جيب) ؟

☐ نعم (اجيبي على السؤالين رقم 6 و 7) ☐ لا

6ب. إذا اجبتي بنعم ، فكم يعطيك أهلك مصروفا في الأسبوع (تقريبا)؟

☐ أقل من 5 ريال ☐ 5-10 ريال ☐ 11-20 ريال ☐ 21-50 ريال ☐ 50 ريال فأكثر

17أ. في رأيك هل المصروف الذي تمنحه لك أسرته كافي ؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا (اجيبي على السؤال رقم 7 ب )

7ب. إذا اجبتي بلا ، فهل لديك مصادر دخل أخرى ؟

☐ نعم (اجيبي على السؤال رقم 7 ج ) ☐ لا

7ج. إذا اجبتي بنعم على السؤال 7 ب ، فيرجى تحديد مقدار هذا الدخل ومصدره ؟

.....

## العلاقات الأسرية

1. بصفة عامة كيف تصفين علاقتك مع أفراد أسرتك ؟

( الرجاء وضع علامة ✓ في المربع المناسب ، وإذا كان لديك أكثر من أخ أو أخت فيمكنك اختيار أكثر من مربع ، وإذا شعرتي بأن بعض العبارات لا تنطبق عليك فيمكنك وضع علامة ✓ في مربع "لا ينطبق" ).

طبيعة العلاقة						علاقتك مع ....
1. جيدة جدا	2. جيدة	3. متوسطة	4. سيئة	5. سيئة جدا	6. لا ينطبق	
						- الأب
						- الأم
						- زوجة الأب
						- زوج الأم
						- إخوانك الأشقاء
						- إخوانك غير الأشقاء
						- أخواتك الشقيقات
						- أخواتك غير الشقيقات

2. هل لديك أي معلومات أخرى ترغبين في إضافتها لوصف طبيعة علاقتك مع أفراد أسرتك ؟

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## الحياة الأسرية

- الأسئلة التالية تدور حول بعض الأمور المتعلقة بحياتك الشخصية وعن الأمور التي قد تكون حدثت معك في مرحلة الطفولة "مرحلة الطفولة تبدأ منذ الولادة وتستمر حتى بلوغك عمر 17 سنة". نرجو منك أن تفكري بتأني قبل إجابتك على الأسئلة و أن تفكري في كل هؤلاء الذين اعتنوا بك في مرحلة الطفولة . الرجاء وضع علامة ✓ في المربع الذي ترين أنه يصف تجربتك.

لا ينطبق	باستمرار	غالبا	أحيانا	نادرا	أبدا	خلال فترة الطفولة.....	
						والذي يتشاجر ان امي .	1
						امي تستخدم لغة سيئة عندما تتجادل مع والدي.	2
						أبي يستخدم لغة سيئة عندما يتجادل مع امي .	3
						أبي يضرب امي عندما يتشاجر ان .	4
						امي لا تخبر أحدا عن تعنيف أبي لها.	5
						امي تريد أن يطلقها أبي ولكن تخشى أن يحرما من أطفالها.	6
						عندما يضرب أبي امي يضربني أنا ايضا.	7
						أبي يضرب امي باستخدام بعض الأدوات مثل العقال . الحزام .	8
						أخي يضربني .	9
						الخادمة (الشغالة) تعتني بي أكثر من والدتي .	10
						أبي يقضى وقتا أطول مع زوجاته الأخريات أكثر من امي.	11
						أبي يحب أبنائه من زوجاته الأخريات أكثر منا .	12
						امي تحب إخواني الذكور أكثر مني .	13
						أبي يحب إخواني الذكور أكثر مني.	14
						استطيع أن أخبر امي عن مشاكلي .	15
						استطيع أن أخبر أبي عن مشاكلي .	16

لا ينطبق	باستمرار	غالبا	أحيانا	نادرا	أبدا	خلال فترة الطفولة.....	
						17 بعض الأشخاص في عائلتي يطلقون علي أسماء غير لائقة "مثل غبية , قبيحة *يرجى ذكر من قاموا بذلك اخر مرة (مثلا الأب , الأخ ...او غيرهم) ..... .....	
						18 أبي عانى \ يعاني من اضطرابات نفسية .	
						19 أمي عانت \ تعاني من اضطرابات نفسية .	
						20 أبي يشرب الكحول .	
						21 أمي تشرب الكحول .	
						22 أبي يتعاطى مواد مخدرة ممنوعة .	
						23 أمي تتعاطى مواد مخدرة ممنوعة .	
						24 أبي يحثني على أداء الصلاة .	
						25 أمي تحثني على أداء الصلاة .	
						26 أبي يصلي .	
						27 أمي تصلي .	
						28 أبي يشجعني على الدراسة .	
						29 أمي تشجعني على الدراسة .	
						30 أبي يسأل عن مستوى التحصيل في المدرسة .	
						31 أمي تسأل عن مستوى التحصيل في المدرسة .	
						32 أبي يكافئني إذا اجتهدت في الدراسة (مثلا اعطائك بعض المال ، او الذهاب في رحلة .. او غيرها)	
						33 أمي تكافئني إذا اجتهدت في الدراسة (مثلا اعطائك بعض المال ، او الذهاب في رحلة .. او غيرها)	
						34 أبي لا يسمح لي بزيارة صديقتي في منازلهم .	

لا ينطبق	بإستمرار	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	أبداً	خلال فترة الطفولة.....	
						أمي لا تسمح لي بزيارة صديقاتي في منازلهم.	35
						أبي يرفض إعطائي المال عندما أطلب منه .	36
						أمي ترفض إعطائي المال عندما أطلب منها.	37
						في العطلات يشترك أفراد العائلة سوياً في النشاطات الترفيهية .	38
						أبي لا يسمح لي بممارسة هواياتي المفضلة .	39
						أمي لا تسمح لي بممارسة هواياتي المفضلة.	40
						لدي هاتف جوال و أبي لا يعلم بذلك .	41
						لدي هاتف جوال و أمي لا تعلم بذلك .	42
						استعمل الإنترنت دون علم أبي .	43
						استعمل الإنترنت دون علم أمي .	44
						أبي سبق له أن سجن . *ما سبب إيداعه السجن في آخر مرة سجن فيها؟ ..... *من كان يعتني بك (مسؤولاً عنك) في آخر مرة سجن فيها والذك ؟ .....	45
						أمي سبق لها أن سجنّت . *ما سبب إيداعها السجن في آخر مرة سجنّت فيها؟ ..... *من كان يعتني بك (مسؤولاً عنك) في آخر مرة سجنّت فيها والذك ؟ .....	46
						أحد أخوانك أو أخواتك سبق أن تم سجنه .يرجى التحديد مثلاً أخ،أخت ..... *ماسبب سجنه \ سجنها في آخر مرة سجن \ سجنّت فيها ؟ .....	47



## العنف الأسري

- الأسئلة التالية تدور حول بعض الأمور المتعلقة بحياتك الشخصية وعن الأمور التي قد تكون حدثت معك في مرحلة الطفولة "مرحلة الطفولة تبدأ منذ الولادة وتستمر حتى بلوغك عمر 17 سنة". نرجو منك أن تفكري بتأني قبل إجابتك على الأسئلة و أن تفكري في كل هؤلاء الذين اعتنوا بك في مرحلة الطفولة . **الرجاء وضع علامة ✓ في المربع الذي ترين انه يصف تجربتك.**

1أ. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق و أن قام أي أحد من أفراد عائلتك بضربك أو رفesk أو إيذائك جسدياً بأي شكل من الأشكال ؟

☐ نعم ( اجبني على السؤال رقم 1 كاملاً ) ☐ لا ( انتقلي الى السؤال رقم 2 )

1ب. إذا اجبتي بنعم ، الرجاء تحديد الأشخاص الذين قاموا بذلك ؟

☐ الأب ☐ زوجة الأب ☐ الأم ☐ زوج الأم ☐ الأخ ☐ اخرون (يرجى التوضيح.....)

1ج. كم مرة حدث معك هذا (التعرض للضرب أو الإيذاء من قبل الأسرة ) خلال العام الماضي "تقريباً"؟

1د. عندما حصل ذلك هل تسبب ذلك في إي ضرر جسدي لك " الضرر الجسدي يقصد به الضرر الذي يخلف ألماً في الجسد حتى اليوم التالي أو يترك ندوب أو حروق أو آثار على جسدك "؟

☐ نعم ( اجبني على السؤال رقم 1 هـ ، و1 ) ☐ لا ( انتقلي الى السؤال رقم 1 ح ، ط )

1هـ. ما نوع الإصابة التي تعرضتي لها نتيجة لذلك في آخر مرة تعرضتي فيها للضرب أو الإيذاء من قبل الأسرة؟ (يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة)

☐ كدمات صغيرة ، كشوط أو جروح بسيطة . ☐ كدمات كبيرة ، جروح غائرة أو كدمات تحت العين .

☐ التواءات ، كسور في العظام ، أو كسور في الأسنان ☐ إصابات داخلية أو نزيف داخلي .

☐ فقدان للوعي أو دخول في غيبوبة . ☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح.....)

1و. هل ذهبتى الى أي مستشفى أو عيادة أو أي مركز صحي لتتلقى العلاج نتيجة لإصابتك ؟ في آخر مرة حصل لك ذلك

☐ نعم ☐ لا

1ح. كم شخصاً قاموا بذلك (ضربك أو إيذائك جسدياً) في آخر مرة حصل لك ذلك ؟

1ط. من هم الأشخاص الذين قاموا بذلك (ضربك أو إيذائك جسدياً) في آخر مرة حصل لك ذلك ؟

☐ الأب ☐ الأم ☐ زوجة الأب ☐ زوج الأم ☐ الأخ ☐ اخرون (يرجى التحديد.....)

12أ. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق و أن شعرت بالخوف أو الحزن بسبب قيام أحد أفراد عائلتك بمناداتك باسماء سيئة أو اخبارك بانهم لا يحبونك أو لا يردونك ؟

☐ نعم ( اجبني على السؤال رقم 2 كاملاً ) ☐ لا ( انتقلي الى السؤال رقم 3 )

2ب. كم مرة حصل معك ذلك (الأهانة اللفظية من قبل الأهل) خلال العام الماضي؟

2ج. منذ متى حصل معك ذلك (التعرض للإهانة اللفظية من قبل الأهل) "مثلا قبل عام أو شهر أو يوم" في آخر مرة تعرضت لذلك ؟

2د. كم عدد الأشخاص الذين قاموا بذلك (توجيه الإهانة اللفظية لك) في آخر مرة حصل لك ذلك ؟

2هـ. من هم الأشخاص الذين قاموا بذلك في آخر مرة (الأشخاص الذين وجهوا لك الإهانة اللفظية) ؟ يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة .

☐ الأب ☐ الأم ☐ زوجة الأب ☐ زوج الأم ☐ الأخ ☐ اخرون (يرجى التوضيح .....) (.....)

3أ. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق وأن تعرضت للإهمال أو قلة الرعاية من قبل أحد أفراد أسرتك أو الأشخاص المسؤولين عن رعايتك "يقصد بالإهمال هو أن الأشخاص المسؤولين عنك لا يعتنون بك كما يجب مثلا عدم توفير الغذاء المناسب أو عدم أخذك إلى الطبيب عندما تحتاجين إلى ذلك "

☐ نعم (اجبني على السؤال رقم 3 كاملا) ☐ لا (انتقلي إلى السؤال رقم 4)

3ب. كم عدد المرات التي تعرضتي فيها للإهمال من قبل أسرتك خلال العام الماضي ؟

3ج. هل أصبتي بالخوف ، أو المرض أو الإيذاء نتيجة لإهمال أسرتك لك ؟

☐ تعرضت للخوف ☐ أصبتي بالمرض

☐ تعرضت للإيذاء ☐ لا أحد مما سبق (انتقلي للسؤال رقم 4)

3د. إذا تعرضتي للإصابة نتيجة لإهمال أسرتك لك ، الرجاء تحديد نوع الإصابة التي تعرضت لها في آخر مرة أصبتي فيها ؟ (يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة ) .

☐ كدمات صغيرة ، كسوط أو جروح بسيطة . ☐ كدمات كبيرة ، جروح غائرة أو كدمات تحت العين .

☐ التواءات ، كسور في العظام ، أو كسور في الأسنان ☐ إصابات داخلية أو نزيف داخلي .

☐ فقدان للوعي أو دخول في غيبوبة . ☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح .....) (.....)

3هـ. هل ذهبت إلى أي مستشفى أو عيادة أو أي مركز صحي لتلقي العلاج نتيجة لإصابتك أو مرضك ؟ في آخر مرة حصل لك ذلك

☐ نعم ☐ لا

3و. كم عدد الأشخاص الذين قاموا بذلك آخر مرة ؟ "الأشخاص الذين قاموا بإخافتك أو كانوا سببا في تعرضك للإصابة أو المرض"

3ز. من هم الأشخاص الذين قاموا بذلك في آخر مرة (الأشخاص الذين قاموا بإخافتك أو كانوا سببا في تعرضك للإصابة أو المرض) ؟

يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة .

☐ الأب ☐ الأم ☐ زوجة الأب ☐ زوج الأم ☐ الأخ ☐ اخرون (يرجى التوضيح .....) (.....)

4. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق وأن قام أي أحد من أفراد عائلتك بهزك بشكل قوي أو رميك باتجاه الحائط أو رميك بقوة على قطع الأثاث الموجودة بالمنزل ؟

☐ نعم (من قام بذلك آخر مرة ..... ) ☐ لا



12. بصفة عامة أي من الطرق التالية كانت تستخدم لتربيتك خلال فترة طفولتك ؟ (يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة)

- ☐ عن طريق إخراجي ومعاملتي بشكل لا إنساني . ☐ النهر أو الصراخ .  
☐ تخويفي بالضرب ، لكن دون ضربتي فعلياً . ☐ الشتم .  
☐ مناداتي بأسماء غير لائقة(مثل غبية أو قبيحة) ☐ تخويفي بأنه ستم رمي خارج المنزل أو منعي من الذهاب للمدرسة  
☐ أخرى (يرجى التوضيح.....)  
☐ لا شيء مما سبق ذكره.

13. إذا سبق وأن تعرضت لأي شيء مما ذكر في السؤال السابق(سؤال رقم 12) فهل هذه الأشياء حدثت أو تحدث لك بشكل منتظم ؟

☐ بشكل منتظم على مدار سنوات ☐ بشكل منتظم في مدة معينة فقط ☐ في بعض الأحيان ☐ بشكل غير منتظم ☐ لا أعرف

14. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق وأن حاول أحد أفراد عائلتك أن يلمس جسمك بشكل غير لائق أو يطلب منك أن تلمس مناطق خاصة في جسمهم ؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا

15. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق وأن حاول أحد أفراد عائلتك أن يجبرك على أن تشاهدي أماكن خاصة في جسدك سواء عن طريق المفاجأة أو الإجبار ؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا

16. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق وأن جرح أحدهم مشاعرك بقول أو كتابة عبارات غير لائقة عن جسدك ؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا

17. خلال فترة طفولتك وقبل بلوغك سن الـ 18 ، هل سبق وأن حاول أحد الأشخاص الذين تتقن فيهم مثل العم أو الخال أن يطلب منك أن تقومى بأمور غير لائقة معه ؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا

18. إذا اجبتي بنعم على السؤال السابق "سؤال رقم 17" فمن كان هؤلاء الأشخاص في آخر مرة حصل معك ذلك ؟

## التعامل مع مشاعرك

1. هل هناك أي شيء آخر ترغبين في إضافته خاصة فيما يتعلق بالتعرض للعنف من قبل الأسرة أو حتى مشاهدة العنف ؟ الرجاء إعطاء وصف مختصر.....

.....

2. إن سبق وكنت ضحية للعنف الأسري فيرجى منك توضيح كيف أثر هذا العنف على شخصيتك وسلوكك (على سبيل المثال هل أدى بك هذا العنف إلى الإكتئاب أو الرغبة في إيذاء الذات) ؟

.....

3. إن سبق وكنت ضحية للعنف الأسري فكيف تمكنتي من التعامل مع المشكلة ؟ على سبيل المثال عن طريق التحدث إلى صديقة مقربة ، أو عن طريق الهروب من المنزل أو طلب المساعدة من مؤسسات الحماية الاجتماعية . ييرجى التوضيح

.....

4. هل تعرفين أن هناك مؤسسات في السعودية متخصصة في تقديم الحماية والدعم لضحايا العنف الأسري " الرجاء كتابة اسماء هذه المؤسسات إن كنتي تعرفينها"؟

.....

5. هل سبق وأن تم تحويلك إلى إحدى هذه المؤسسات المختصة في الحماية والدعم النفسي لضحايا العنف الأسري؟

☐ لا

☐ نعم

6. إذا اجبتي بنعم على السؤال السابق ، فيرجى التوضيح ماهي هذه المؤسسة التي تم تحويلك إليها؟

.....

7. ما رأيك في الخدمات التي تقدمها المؤسسة أو الدار التي حولتي إليها ؟

.....

## تصرفاتك وسلوكك

1. هذه الأسئلة تتعلق ببعض الأمور التي من المحتمل أن تكوني قمتي بها خلال فترة طفولتك أو مراهقتك ، إنها أمور عامة الكثير من الأطفال أو المراهقين قاموا أو يقومون بها في مرحلة ما من حياتهم . لذا نرجو منك أن تكوني صريحة في إجابتك على الأسئلة علما بان جميع البيانات ستعامل بسرية تامة . الرجاء وضع علامة ✓ في المربع الذي تزين انه يصف تجربتك.

العبارة	نعم	لا	الاسئلة
هل سبق لك أن .....			كم مرة قمتي بذلك خلال العام الماضي؟ كم كان عمرك عندما قمتي بذلك آخر مرة ؟
1. قمتي بتخريب أو تكسير أو تدمير أشياء تعود ملكيتها لأشخاص غيرك.			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
2. قمتي بصفع أو ضرب صديقائك أو الدخول في شجار معهم .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
3. قمتي بالسخرية أو الاستهزاء بزميلائك أو معلمائك .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
4. قمتي بسرقة أي شيء .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
5. قمتي بالتغيب عن المدرسة بدون عذر .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
6. تم فصلك من المدرسة أو الكلية .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
7. قمتي بتدخين السجائر .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
8. قمتي بتعاطي مواد مخدرة .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
9. قمتي بالكتابة على الجدران أو السيارات أو أي مكان آخر .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
10. قمتي بحمل بعض الأسلحة مثل السكين .			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>
11. قمتي بتجنب الدفع على مشترياتك في السوق مثلا			مرة <input type="checkbox"/> مرتين <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكتر <input type="checkbox"/>

الأسئلة		لا	نعم	العبارة
كم مرة قمتي بذلك خلال العام الماضي؟	كم كان عمرك عندما قمتي بذلك آخر مرة ؟			هل سبق لك أن .....
<input type="checkbox"/> مرة <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكثر	<input type="checkbox"/> مرتين			12. قمتي بالتسبب في ضرر جسدي أو إصابة لأي أحد .
<input type="checkbox"/> مرة <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكثر	<input type="checkbox"/> مرتين			13. قمتي بمحاولة الانتحار . - إذا اجبتي بنعم فيرجى تحديد سبب قيامك بذلك <u>في آخر مرة</u> حاولتي فيها الانتحار؟ .....
<input type="checkbox"/> مرة <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكثر	<input type="checkbox"/> مرتين			14. قمتي بالهروب من المنزل . - إذا اجبتي بنعم فيرجى تحديد سبب قيامك بذلك <u>في آخر مرة</u> حاولتي فيها الهروب؟ .....
<input type="checkbox"/> مرة <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكثر	<input type="checkbox"/> مرتين			15. تم ايداعك أو سجنك في مؤسسة رعاية الفتيات أو السجن العام . - إذا اجبتي بنعم فيرجى تحديد سبب احتجازك في آخر مرة سجنتي فيها؟ .....
<input type="checkbox"/> مرة <input type="checkbox"/> 3-2 مرات <input type="checkbox"/> 4 مرات فاكثر	<input type="checkbox"/> مرتين			16. تم احتجازك أو اعتقالك بواسطة هيئة الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر . - إذا اجبتي بنعم فيرجى تحديد سبب احتجازك في آخر مرة تم احتجازك من قبل الهيئة؟ .....

19. من وجهة نظرك كيف يمكن الوقاية من العنف الأسري في المجتمع السعودي ؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

20. من وجهة نظرك كيف يمكن حماية الفتيات من الانحراف في المجتمع السعودي ؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

شاكراً ومقدراً لكم حسن تعاونكم .